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ON June 9th, 1929, at Iowa City, Iowa, seventeen days before reaching his fifty-second birthday, Charles Henry Woolbert died. He went from us at the very summit of his powers and "while the shadows still were falling toward the west." He had not lived long but he had lived well. Judged in terms of life's most important dimensions—its depth and breadth,—he had lived greatly.

His early years were spent in and about his birthplace, Ottawa, Illinois. When Charles was but eight years of age, the family was left in straightened circumstances. At once he assumed his share of the common financial burden. He carried newspapers, tended furnaces, and drove delivery wagons. During his vacations from school, he spent long days at work in a factory, turning over all of his earnings to his mother. Thus he made his way through the elementary school and the high school, graduating from the latter as valedictorian of his class. With just enough money to buy necessary clothing and pay his fare to Evanston, he set his face toward a university education. He matriculated at Northwestern at the age of 19, and, without resources except those inherent in his indomitable purpose, he undertook to finance his own way through college. Largely through the most menial sort of work, he earned enough to survive and he moved

* An address delivered at the New York Convention, December 30, 1929.

steadily onward toward his goal. From his earliest days he had been physically active and athletic. He had roamed the woods and fields, he had gone skating, sailing, and swimming. He had loved all out-of-door games. Even though earning his way through college, he found time for many extra-curricular activities. He was a member of Delta Tau Delta, he won his letter by playing tackle on the varsity football team, and he was elected to Phi Beta Kappa.

Intercollegiate football held a fascination for him all through his life. Years later, when the University of Illinois was raising funds for the construction of the Memorial Stadium, he furnished the campaign slogan: "Build that Stadium for Fighting Illini." No matter how sincerely he might deplore the excesses of modern athletics, he could never absent himself from the color, the action, the music, the cheering, and the struggle on Saturday afternoons in October and November.

In these sophisticated days when we are wont to smile superciliously over the tales written by Horatio Alger and by other authors of inspirational books for boys, it is interesting to know that Woolbert always felt, and often said, that the initial impulse which had fired him with the ambition to climb out of the commonplaces, the poverty, and the hardships to which he had been born, was just such a story, bearing the characteristic title, "Poor Boys who Became Famous." From the days in which the ill-clad and overworked child had struggled to make what contribution he could to the family budget, to the days in which he was a recognized leader of his profession, well deserving his place in "Who's Who," his life was a veritable and authentic epic of American success. He himself was one of the "Poor Boys Who Became Famous."

In 1900 the bachelor's degree was conferred upon him by Northwestern. The ensuing two years were spent in a high school instructorship at West Aurora, Illinois. In 1902 he became Acting Professor of English and Public Speaking at Olivet College, and in 1903, went thence to Albion College. He served at Albion for a full decade. In the meantime, in 1909, he had earned a Master of Art's degree at the University of Michigan. In 1913, he was called to the position of Associate in English at the University of Illinois. In 1917, finding that his lack of a doctor's degree made promotion impossible for him at Illinois, he went to Harvard as an Assistant in Psychology and Aesthetics and as a

candidate for the Ph. D. degree which was granted to him in 1918. He then returned to Illinois as an Assistant Professor, was promoted to an Associate Professorship in 1921, and to a Professorship in 1924. In 1926, he accepted the call of the State University of Iowa to a Professorship of Speech. He was in the middle of his third year at Iowa when he was stricken down.

From that Friday afternoon, November 27th, 1914, when the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF ACADEMIC TEACHERS OF PUBLIC SPEAKING was born, until the time of Woolbert's death, his career was inextricably interwoven with the growth and development of our organization. He was one of the seventeen charter members, and immediately took his place on the research committee of the new organization. On December 31, 1919, he was elected to the Presidency of the ASSOCIATION, and at the close of his year in that office, he became EDITOR of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL for a three-year term, the second man to hold that strategic and important position.

For ten years, beginning in 1915, Woolbert was a constant contributor to the QUARTERLY JOURNAL. I have gone back over everything that he published there, and I find a score of articles totalling about 250 pages in all. Many of them are rare combinations of clarity of thought and cogency of expression and certainly deserve to rank among the best which have ever found their way into the pages of the JOURNAL. He was one of the most profound thinkers and prolific writers our profession has known. At his best, he had a unique and compelling gift of rhetoric. While in his expressions he frequently furnished new bottles for rare old wine, yet I think that no one who knew him would deny that he was highly original in his thinking as well as in his style.

Had he never done anything else, the publication of these articles, together with his other thoughtful and thought-provoking contributions to such periodicals as THE PSYCHOLOGICAL REVIEW, and the JOURNAL OF APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY, would have given him a unique position in our profession. But, in addition to these labors of love he found time to publish three standard textbooks, to revise and republish two of them, and to serve as advisory editor for a well-known publishing house. All these things were done while he was in a full-time teaching position, supervising graduate study, serving as a university administrator, organizing and developing courses, and usually working through the summer as

well as during the regular year. Verily, his early habit of industry was the guarantee of his later success.

When we attempt to appraise his contribution to the stream of thought which constitutes the very essence of our professional life, we are faced with some well-nigh insoluble problems. So much of his philosophy has been woven into the very warp and woof of our procedures, techniques, and points of view, that we cannot be sure just what his peculiar gifts to us were. To the future we we shall have to leave many baffling questions as to which of his ideas were borrowed from others, which were the fruits of co-operative effort, and which were really his alone.

In the brief moment which you lend me today I can do little more than mention four lines of thought which run like golden threads through all he wrote. These four fundamental tenets are:

1st. The *art* of speech must be correlated with, and undergirded by, the *science* of speech.

2nd. Psychological monism is a more satisfactory basis from which to teach speech than is either the traditional body-mind dualism or body-mind-soul trimorphism.

3rd. Teaching procedures can be safely derived only from a painstaking process of analyzing technique into its ultimate elements.

4th. By reason of its intrinsic worth, speech as an academic discipline is bound to grow from strength to strength.

He was one of the first to see the need for research and a scientific approach to our work. Witness the following pronouncements which he made when our organization was in its infancy.

"I stand for a search for the facts. The facts we use are too often guesses; our methods are too purely personal; we need to get together on some commonly acceptable basis. The only one I know of comes from scientifically conducted investigation and research. Hence I stand for research."[1]

Again he says: "Some of us have just faith enough in facts, laws, and methods, to believe that therein is the way of salvation and now is the accepted time."[2]

How whimsical and yet how wise is his attitude toward the demands laid upon him by life in a university system! He says:

[1] A Problem in Pragmatism—Q. J. July 1916, p. 264.
[2] *Ibid.* p. 273.

"I know thoroughly well that our universities are not going to make way for a discipline which cannot furnish the facts, the laws, and the unified interest. The university has no guest chamber, and no chair for nomads."[3]

"I have violent attachments for kindred spirits, and I revel in the company of fellow pilgrims to Parnassus. I even sigh for the good old days when the teacher was not a member of a labor union, and could ride Pegasus at a jog-trot if he wished. Sometimes I can even understand why John Ruskin shook his fist at the nasty factories and the horrid railroad trains. But, keeping my eyes open, I have had it forced upon me that the age of specialization is here, and if we are going to live in this age we shall have to knuckle under."[4]

"No research; no favor in the eyes of educators. We occupy a delightful position among disciplines; but the test of its permanence is in our willingness to do in Rome what all good Romans do. We may long and sigh and pine; but presidents and deans are not moved that way, sad to relate. They are becoming pretty stony-hearted toward all who conclude not to make serious and persistent efforts to increase the kingdom of knowledge.... I for one am ambitious to see the profession make the best of the situation and play the game according to the rules; this year's copy. Only thus, I firmly believe, shall we know the truth, and the truth once found will in very deed, make us free."[5]

But there was more to his love of research than this constrained affection. He says:

"I for one am a small boy in the face of interesting phenomena; I always want to know why? how? and again why? I have the elemental desire to take things apart to see what makes them tick."[6]

And, as always, the pioneer spirit was in him. He says rather wistfully but courageously:

"In an age of organization and specialization, I am for specializing and organizing; where technique is demanded I yield to it if I can do so without sin; and where the old order changes, I

[3] *Ibid.* p. 265.
[4] *Ibid.* p. 269.
[5] Suggestions as to Methods of Research. Q. J. Jan. 1917, p. 26.
[6] A Problem in Pragmatism. Q. J. July 1916, p. 270.

turn—with maybe a tinge of sadness—in never-failing hope to the new."[7]

The second dominant note in Woolbert's philosophy of speech was that of *monism.* He believed in—almost fanatically at times—and always taught the essential unity of the speech mechanism (the whole body), the essential unity of the speech processes (in both speaker and reactor), and the essential unity of human nature. In Psychology he was an uncompromising "federalist;" *E Pluribus Unum* to him meant a structural, functional, and organic unity. He was intolerantly impatient of the old faculty psychology, with its postulates of separate entities such as *the intellect, the emotions, the mind, the memory, the will,* etc. He saw all these as aspects of an indissoluble unity. Nothing irritated him more than to hear someone discussing *the intellect* as if it were an homunculus resident in the cells of the cerebrum. In 1917 he wrote:

"Mind and body are two aspects of the same entity."[8]
Ten years later he expressed the same thought:
"The human body tends to operate as a whole, and is at its best as a whole....Man cannot be said to *possess* a mind; he *is* a mind."[9]

Woolbert lived in an orderly *uni*verse not in a *duo*verse or a *multi*verse. He saw man as a part of this deterministic order. He saw man as one and fundamentally indivisible. For him the physical, the mental, and the spiritual were but facets of the unified human being. He believed that to touch a human being anywhere, is to touch him everywhere; to modify his behavior anywhere is to modify his behavior everywhere; to improve him physically is to enlarge his capacities for mental and spiritual life; to improve him mentally is to set into operation powers which move for physical and spiritual betterment; and to regenerate him spiritually is to release forces which may remake him physically and mentally. To paraphrase the poet, *he saw man steadily and saw him whole.*

Third, Woolbert was a profound believer in the necessity for analysis as a prerequisite to theory-building and teaching. Perhaps his point of view in this connection may be inferred from

[7] *Ibid.* p. 274.

[8] Conviction and Persuasion—Some Considerations of Theory., Q. J. July 1917. p. 256.

[9] Preface to 1927 Edition of Fundamentals of Speech.

what has already been said about research and the scientific method. A few brief statements taken from an article published in the issue of the *Journal* for July, 1915,[10] will make this point. He says: "Unless a system provides for ultimate analysis it cannot be properly taught. . . ."No system of teaching can be complete that uses for elements something other than the unresolvable". . . ."The only way to get at a pupil whose thinking does not guide him aright is to take the thing apart and show him how it works. As a matter of teaching it is the one best way of developing the student's power of self-criticism, and of cultivating good speech habits. No system is complete that does not make its products into keen and accurate analyzers. A *taught* student ought to be a good diagnostician, and ought accordingly to be in the way of improving himself and of teaching others."

Finally, Woolbert had a profound and persistent belief in our manifest destiny as a profession. His was not a blind optimism. In pushing our frontiers forward and staking out new claims he met as many discouragements as most of us have to meet. Yet he felt that a discipline as fundamentally useful as speech must somehow come into its own if we but toil and faint not. Here are some characteristic pronouncements:

"It is simply unthinkable that forward-looking universities shall further refuse their aid to an enterprise that means so much to the well-being, the culture, and the material prosperity of the nation and its people."[11]

"Speech is one of the most valuable of all disciplines—it is used by more people every day and in more ways and to solve more issues than any other human activity which is subject to investigation and learning."[12]

"It will not be possible in America much longer to neglect this one of the very foundations of all education."[13]

"Speech in all its forms is so inherently valuable to the human race that it is unthinkable that the educational world will be con-

[10] Theories of Expression—Some Criticisms. Q. J. July 1915, pp. 140-142.

[11] Report of Committee on Research. Q. J. June 1920, p. 72.

[12] The Teaching of Speech As An Academic Discipline. Q. J. Feb. 1923, p. 2.

[13] *Ibid.* p. 17.

tent to neglect the teaching of it and fail to extend the knowledge of its laws and history. Every sign indicates that in the years to come we shall see greater and greater attention paid to speech and shall find more and more teachers of it, employed in schools, colleges and universities. Speech science, has come to stay. It will grow in stature and favor with each passing year.''[14]
He lived to see tremendous advances toward the high future which his faith had envisioned.

One of his students at Illinois says of him: '' 'Doc' Woolbert was loved, honored, and respected by all of the students who came into contact with him. When I say *all*, I mean it literally. He was interested in and interesting to, not only speech students, but athletes, politicians, scholars, and ne'er-do-wells. He was friend and adviser to all. We wondered many times where he found the minutes and the energy with which to greet each student who came to him. He met them all with that keen interest and freshness which is usually reserved for the first few in the morning. Is it any wonder that the whole campus was saddened when word came that he was to leave? More people spontaneously asked to come to the farewell banquet than could be accomodated in the largest available hall. Former students returned from New York, Florida, California, and Washington. Town and gown joined in a chorus of demand for his retention at Illinois and presented formal petitions to the University administration and even to the state legislature to stay his going. I suppose I am prejudiced for he was so good to me. He meant more in my life than any other one person and my only regret is that I shall never be good enough to point to myself with pride and say, 'See what Doc did'!''

''Who shall fetch in a cruse of verses
All that lies on the mind's sea-floor.''

So sang the poet, at grips with a message which seem to transcend his powers of expression. And so I have felt as I have faced my impossible task here today. How can the life of such a vigorous and versatile personality; more than a quarter of a century of unsurpassed service to our profession, the years pressed down and running over with thinking, writing, and teaching, how can all this

[14] The Organization of Speech Science in Universities. Q. J. Jan. 1916, p. 77.

be reduced to a few brief moments of speech? The first chill shock of the realization that he had passed into the undiscovered country is still upon me. He was my friend and our years of close association meant more to me than I can possibly put into words. We turn down the page, with a deep sense of our indebtedness to him. He was one of our great leaders. Even now it seems incredible that he has gone from us in the flesh. In the spirit, he will never leave those of us who knew him.

During his last illness, he expressed the wish that at his death his body should be cremated and his ashes strewn upon the river. Said he: "I do not want six feet of immobile earth to represent me when I have gone; rather let me float away on yonder stream, between the green fields set with grass and flowers and trees. Then perhaps my friends may remember me as I have been while living and working." And so we shall always think of him, as he was: strenuous, dynamic, vibrantly alive. His life and his work will flow down the channel of the years; an ever broadening and deepening stream of influence which will quicken and enrich our profession until the end of time.

PSYCHOLOGY FROM THE STANDPOINT OF A SPEECH TEACHER

CHARLES HENRY WOOLBERT

SPEECH is a term with many meanings, from elemental vocal sounds to a public address or even the language habits of a people. The term is used here to include "Communication by voice and by total bodily action." This communication may be from one individual to another or from an individual to a group; it may be original discourse, oral reading from the page, declamation from memory, or the spoken part of drama. The essential factor is the intention on the part of one person to carry meanings to another or others. Thus the focus of this discussion is on meaningful, communicative speech rather than on speech elements. Accordingly the term "speech teacher" means the teacher commissioned to give instruction in oral expression (elocution if you are not afraid), informal talking, public address, interpreting the printed page, impersonating, and acting. In other words, of the three aspects of

speech training—*communicative speech, interpretative speech,* and *articulate speech*—the former is the subject of this discussion.

For it is in teaching boys and girls how to speak in public and how to read the printed page aloud, that the speech teacher becomes perforce psychologist. In the teaching of these disciplines we cannot even get started without running afoul of almost every chapter-heading in psychology; mind, meaning, intellect, habit, thought, emotions, feeling, imagination, image, idea, understanding, belief, attention, perception, reasoning—these are the most necessary tools of the speech teacher's equipment. Without them he has nothing left but the physics of sound and the anatomy and physiology of voice. There's a reason; for speech training is nothing more or less than a form of applied psychology. Thus necessarily the speech teacher of today runs for help and guidance to the science of psychology.

In this he follows an ancient and honored precedent. The *rhetor* among the Greeks was as much philosopher (i. e., psychologist) as he was teacher of speech, and as much teacher of speech as he was psychologist. He had to be; the subjects are inseparable. Many of the illustrious names in Greek philosophy are of teachers of oratory, and every Greek teacher of oratory paid his dues and did his service to philosophy. So the modern speech teacher only reveals another turn of the wheel of history into full circle, and follows the very best of all educational examples. But psychology today is a more intense and complicated study than in 400 B. C., as is speech also. Especially is psychology, as offered in the text books, more specialized, less occupied with practical needs. Unlike the ancients, the psychologist of today keeps himself fairly free from such everyday matters as public speaking, teaching, advertising, sociology, economics, and a score of other interests that crave help from the psychologist's storehouse of grace. Here we are, an eager company with our little bowls held out for more and yet more; and possibly the most insistent is the teacher of speech.

The speech teacher beyond doubt is the Academy's best borrower. Because communicative speech is one of man's most complicated and finished activities, the *rhetor* of today finds himself getting all the help he can from at least a half dozen sciences: physics, biology, anatomy, physiology, psychology, aesthetics, logic; to say nothing of his reliance upon ethics, epistemology, and meta-

physics. He borrows unblushingly; he has no alternative; for the thing he teaches—human communication—is a peak point in the interests of all these sciences, involving them all. Possibly the teaching of speech is, when all is said, an act of sheer presumption. On that there is no argument. But we must carry on, so we borrow as freely as a housewife asking for a cup of sugar or a resident of gasoline alley seeking a monkey wrench. There are only twenty-four hours in a day and each of us has but one life to give for his profession; no man could possibly qualify as an expert in all the subjects named above; so we have a ready ear open to the authoritative conclusions of the several sciences from which we draw.

But these conclusions must be genuinely authoritative and must bear the proper sanctions. We learn as best we may what the physicists agree on and accept that, what the psyiologists agree on and accept that, what the psychologists agree on and accept that. Wherein there is no such agreement, then we collateral relations are left hopeful and expectant, though hardly satisfied. So the quicker our guides, the physicists, the physiologists, the anatomists, and the others, come to agreements among themselves the better we can do our work. Yet we have to do it now, today and tomorrow and next week. We cannot complacently await the pleasure of others for long.

Among these contributing sciences where do we find agreement greatest and where least? I suspect the answer is rather obvious. However, far from perfect concord others may be, at least the smallest agreement is among psychologists. The teacher of speech is always sanguine about the psychologists; hope springs eternal in his breast, but he hardly *is*, rather always *to be* blessed; for when he seeks help from psychology, he is shocked to learn that there is no such thing, there is in reality no psychology: *there are psychologies*. He finds cults and schools,—*isms* and *—ists*, sects and denominations; and what is the poor teacher of speech to do? Only one thing: he can attend all the schools and see how much of each he can use: he can evaluate and classify them. But the classifying of attitudes and schools of thought is after all not psychology, it is philosophy. Yet there is nothing here to give us pause, for when it comes to philosophizing, the modern teacher of speech unblushingly follows the illustrious example of his predecessor, the

Greek rhetor. Still this is not psychology: I have heard psychologists say so in emphatic terms.

So he is forced to philosophize on the psychologies. He finds that these various psychologies are not in agreement even as to their subject matter. Is it experience? consciousness? the mind? mental life? behavior? meaning? or—forgive the temerity—is it human nature? Nor is there agreement as to the necessary "givens," the data. Are they of the order of sensations, images, feelings, perceptions, ideas, emotions? Or are they patterns, configurations, figures, forms? Or again are they actions, sets, tensions, tonuses? The outsider-looking in finds it all rather baffling, for he needs help and he needs it now. The speech teacher especially cannot escape the impression that the language he reads when he reads psychology has a very familiar sound, though not exactly a familiar effect. It seems to be his own words, but not his own meanings, the voice of Jacob, but the hands of Esau.

And it is this new use of an old language that bewilders. We are told by exponents of respectable scientific method that science is largely an attempt to describe the universe in unambiguous language. To a mathematician pi is pi and there is no chance of mistaking it for something else; an elecron means just one thing to a physicist; H_2SO_4 means only one thing to a chemist; a chromosome, has its one and unmistakable meaning for a zoologist. These terms are indigenous to their respective sciences in question; the sciences made them and for their own purposes only. They are not common currency in the language of every-day. And as a consequence such sciences enjoy an immunity that psychology evidently cannot claim; for they have their own special terminologies.

Not so psychology. The language of most of the psychologies is the same language that is used by poets, dramatists, essayists, orators, debaters, school teachers, Sunday School teachers, editors, preachers, and the man on the street. Emotions, ideas, sensations, feelings, thought, reason, imagination, memory, perception, attention—who shall say what the denotations of these are? What agreements do psychologists furnish the outsider-looking in as to the meaning of these terms? Can they ever give us agreements? The answer seems to be: Quite doubtful, so long as the psychologist uses for his terminology the very words used in so many other fields. Such terms as these are all cluttered up with connotations

that quite ruin them for the denotative meaning necessary to a veritable and authentic science.

This difficulty in terminology extends further: it runs even to a predilection on the part of psychologists for figures of speech, especially metaphors. It is strictly metaphorical language to speak of strength of mind, mental power, mental elasticity or endurance or strain, force of mind, vigor of memory, vividness of imagery, acuity of sensation, etc. Almost we might say that there is a prepossession in favor of figures of speech drawn from the science of physics. For physics *is* a fairly safe anchor! Or the metaphor is of sets, figures, patterns, configurations. Maybe at times metaphors are obviated by a switch in languages; English is too plain; try German, or Greek, or Latin; tell us of gestalt, psychosome, elan vital, anstoss, vis vita, bewusseinslage, psychosis, schizophrenia, and scores of such translations of more-or-less everyday ideas that are current in the forum or the market place. This too is baffling and confusing and not calculated to give the outsider-looking in the light he needs.

Then we find that the various psychologies cover a rather wide gamut of human learning. They range through physics, biology, anatomy, physiology, neurology, kinesiology, psychiatry, epistemology, metaphisics, and on to witchcraft, black magic, and folklore. Where to choose from such a wide range? Surely a fruitful diversity for the exercise of a catholic taste. But at what point shall the hesitant outsider-looking in settle down and raise his Ebenezer? Where in all this congeries of sciences and of hocus-pocuses is psychology? Just which of these are of the hearth and fireside, which are collateral relations, and which are the black sheep of the family?

One impression stands out distinctly: the white-headed boy in all this family is neurology. The ultimate retreat in the use of language for psychological problems, seems to be the nervous system, the brain, the cortex, the medulla, the various fissures, areas, centers, and the rest of the neurology borrowed by psychology. Yet in all good faith neurology is not psychology, nor can the neurologist ever hope to tell what the mind is, nor how experience can be, nor what consciousness is like. It is really not his business even to try. Neurology is not psychology any more than the brain and the nervous system are the mind. It cannot explain or describe the mind

or mental process or action or behavior, or tell us anything else than what the nervous system actually is and what it actually does.

Now this outsider-looking in does well to view neurological psychology with considerable skepticism. Psychology explained by nerves is too close to the occult: far too much is hidden from sight. There is too excellent an opportunity for a medicine man to pronounce unintelligible incantations and to look wisely solemn. Somewhere in the alleged powers of the nervous system is black magic. The brain is made to carry a load that hardly seems in keeping with the richness of man's whole structure and his immensely complicated life. It all savors of a great mystery, and of mystery piled on mystery.

A science built on mysteries the teacher of an art subject cannot safely use. The "givens" are too far removed from sight. In the life of the class-room teacher they mean exactly nothing. He may have before him in his classroom row on row of nerves and ganglions and areas and centres and fissures, but they give him precisely no help at all in solving his class problems. You cannot teach public address, interpretation, oral expression through what is known today by all the neurologists in the world.

A reply to this might be, "But it is through what the neurologist teaches the psychologist that the psychologist learns about mind and experience." But the interested speech teacher is not impressed by this, because it gives him no light that he can use in his class room. The brain is hidden too far inside and he is not allowed to trepan his subjects. Whatever he does about human nature he has to do from another direction. Besides he cannot help suspecting the existence of a witch somewhere on the premises. For if brain cells are the residence of ideas, memories, associations, habits, perceptions, and the like, then there's magic in them. By what feat of fancy can a brain cell or any aggregation of them be considered the cause or instigator of ideas, feelings, and thoughts without assuming magic somewhere in the process? Verily the homunculus we have with us always!

Consider the type of statements that alleges magic in the power of the brain, a type with which psychological writings are replete. Take these: "an impulse starts in a cortical center," "the release of kinetic energy in a certain area starts an impulse," "an explosion in a brain cell instigates an action," "lability of certain

cells suggests the starting point of certain responses." Now by what theory can such goings-on be explained without implying that some sort of ghostly visitant is on hand attending to the explosions, the excitations, the release, the lability? Wherein is this a very far removed from Descartes' presiding officer in the pineal gland? Pineal gland or Betz-cell; take your choice.

Now the practical application of this brain psychology, this non-psychological neurology, comes to light at the very point where the borrowing speech teacher most needs help, in the consideration of such concepts as imagery, idea, memory, imagination, attention, habit, and thought. Where do we keep such things? What is the storehouse? What receptacle negotiates all this retaining or containing, and how? Take memory for illustration: where and how are memories held? If in cells waiting to be activated or exploded or made labile, then we must face the logical implications and consequence of what some one has called "dead ends" in the brain. "Dead-ends" is a term used by city engineers to denote the pipes out at the city's edge that mark the ultimate ramification of the gas or water system. They are full of stuff that is going nowhere, just waiting to be used. Bring on some kind of release and they are ready; but most of the time the gas or the water just waits there.

Picture an idea or an image or a wish or a purpose reclining in a dead-end in the brain. Remember that the brain cell is a bit of anatomical tissue on the same order as foodstuff: calves' brains make excellent fries and sautés. And this meaty tissue, soft, a bit slimy, and all but insensate in itself, is offered as the seat of a mental picture or a fancy or a hope which for the moment happens to be resting and waiting to be released! The visual image of this morning's breakfast table taking its ease in a cortical dead-end: can you get the picture! Descartes is really to be exalted to the skies for picking on a gland; for glands, actually do hold things which really instigate and activate. But this is because the gland is itself active and is not resting like a dead-end. A psychology that implies the holding or storing of impulses, images, memories, or habits in dead-ends is a hangover from the days of witchcraft.

But all this is negative, what is *not* rather than what *is*. If the speech teacher does not care for psychology based on the language of literature and if he grows scornful at occult powers ascribed to

nerve cells, centres, and hemispheres, what is it that suits him? What is his way out? The answer is quickly given: he can understand and can use a psychology that is all kinetic, kinetic all over and all the time; a psychology whose terminology, conceived on a basis of kinetics, is clearly unambiguous; and a psychology which squares with the plainest observations that can be made every-day on living, moving, acting organisms.

The speech teacher, it so happens, has an interesting laboratory before him; a laboratory of feelings, thoughts, ideas, habits, reasoning processes, attention, and most of the rest of the chapter-headings of the psychology text-books. But he uses his laboratory material in reverse from the ordinary psychologist. He works, not from the inside and the part to the outside and the whole, but from the outside and the whole to the inside and the part. He does not explain mental events in terms of nerve events, but in terms of action. He believes in nerves as conductors, but not as stimulators or instigators. His chief interest, however, is in what the muscles are up to. These he can catch doing things, while about the nerves he can only make guesses. Much of his evidence about muscles is direct, a matter of immediate observation: all of his evidence about nerves can be only inferences based upon assumptions, some of these rather ghostly. So he puts faith in what he finds he can learn from the muscles.

He sees a student assume postures, stiffen up or grow slack, move about freely or lock himself awkwardly in one place, hold his arms rigid or wave them around, clench his fists or sprawl his fingers, make facial contortions or wear a mask, reveal an expressive eye or a stony stare, arch an eyebrow or maintain a passive front. He hears this same student make sounds with his voice; notes its quality, reads its intensity, its rhythm, its melody, observes the use of vowels and consonants; and then evaluates all these in terms of the meanings of the words the student utters—all produced by manifest action of muscles.

These very actions are his "givens," his data. They are plain to the senses and need no ratiocination or laboratory equipment and technique to establish their existence. So the speech teacher functioning as psychologist comes to accept as his simplest and surest "givens" the clear evidence he gets of muscular action and tension; of *behavior* if you please.

And so he develops a psychology based on muscular action, muscle tension, and muscle tonus. His dialectic runs something like this:

The human organism is a going concern doing business according to its structure and way of behaving; it operates, it gets on, it works.

It is first of all a unit, an integer; it acts as a whole.

The integer is obviously made up of parts, which act in specialized ways.

These parts have fairly definite duties and capacities; digesting, walking, climbing, handling, seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling, vocalizing, articulating, talking, reading.

As between acting as a whole and acting by parts the organisms reveals a dominant native tendency toward acting as a whole, as an integer.

Yet the exigencies of survival and social adjustment make necessary many actions of a highly specialized nature and not in themselves of a wholly integrative character.

Therefore the organism undergoes a constant conflict between the tendency to integrate as a whole and the tendency to specialize or to integrate in localities.

Many issues of mental capacity and soundness can be resolved in terms of integration and specialization; such issues as: mental strength, emotionality, intellectuality, rationality, artistic skill, speech efficiency, moral equilibrium.

Certain implications are basic, accepted from the agreements of physicists, anatomists, and physiologists.

1. The organism is built chiefly in opposing sets of muscles and is bi-laterally symmetrical.
2. Opposing sets can work by alternation or with conflicting tensions.
3. In general an organism maintains a better manner of living and better meets its environment by working in alternations; for it is assumed that all life is an adventure in seeking equilibrium between an organism's tendencies, (drives, urges, wishes, instincts, emotions) and its environment, between its purposes and its possibilities.
4. Thus there is a high value placed upon variety and rhythm of tensions and actions.

5. If there is anything "mental" going on there are three things: stimulation, conduction, contraction (or relaxation).
6. If anything comes in, something always goes out; if there is impression there is conduction and contraction.
7. Of these three, we know most about contraction; and it so happens that the contractive part, the muscles, are the only part incorporating the other two, sense endings, and nerve fibres; thus suggesting that of the three the muscles are the most significant in explaining human actions and nature.
8. The organism working chiefly as a whole and by parts, always by this three-fold mechanism, is capable of acting in various ways, corresponding to the rubrics of traditional psychology:
   a. with highly specialized local activities; which explains intellectual states, especially when the integration is marked in the finer mechanisms, as vocal apparatus, eyes, hands;
   b. with approximately total extensity of tensions, all-in-one-piece; which explains emotions;
   c. as "attention"; through integration of tensions to get more of a certain stimulus;
   d. as "sensation;" by irritability of certain localities—but always implying a tension as well as a stimulus;
   e. as image; by redoing, at least in part, what has been done before;
   f. as memory; by reconstituting action-patterns previously experienced;
   g. as perception; by a degree of integration of the finer and more complicated mechanisms, especially by the re-doing of similar acts and sets by a schematic, minimal, or symbolic representation, thus providing abstractions;
   h. as thought; by varying degrees of integration of coarser and finer mechanisms, usually with the highest degree of integration in the vocal mechanism, the ears. and the eyes, and the kinaesthetic organs;
   i. as consciousness; by a degree of integration that employs a rich mixture of logical inner speech, auditory imagery, visual imagery, and kinaesthetic imagery.

EMERSON ON TOUR

WILLARD THORP
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WHEN Emerson ventured into his public career, he found the age almost fanatically eager for instruction. An attentive audience could be secured for any instructor whose constitution was staunch enough to survive the pork diet of the canal boats, freezing nights in railroad coaches, sixty-mile buggy rides, spitting and corn-liquor, and whose style of eloquence was sufficiently fervid to compete with the allurements of dime-museums and firemen's balls. A curious public considered $3,000 no extravagant amount for a course of lectures from the internationally famous Dr. Spurzheim, Professor of the Phrenological Science. Nor was a larger sum begrudged the more orthodox Professor Silliman of Yale for fifteen lectures on the wonders of the new geology."[1]

Celebrated lions, then as now, might demand their price for submitting to a taming. When Horace Greeley penetrated the Northwest on a speaking tour in 1854 people surged into the towns, "coming thirty and forty miles to hear him, as was right," so Emerson says, "for he does all their thinking and theory for them for two dollars a year." In Cincinnati Emerson's lectures rivalled the observations on "Strong-minded Women" proffered by Lola Montez *née* Marie Dolores Eliza Rosanna Gilbert, Countess of Landsfield, sometime mistress of Ludwig I of Bavaria, and the greatest adventuress of two continents. In Philadelphia, during his visit there in 1854, that exquisite gentleman Mr. Park Benjamin was entrancing the crowded galleries with his poem "Money and Love"—a literary treat with a "profitable moral" according to the *North American*, which takes no notice of Mr. Emerson's sojourn in the city. Three years earlier his presence had been similarly obscured by a series of lectures, delivered by a favorite local spellbinder, exposing the "Debasing Influence of the Idolatrous Superstitions of Rome," the success of which evoked a mass-meeting of ladies in Spring Garden where the Roman priests were shown that

[1] Emerson, it is worth noting, at first attempted to accommodate himself to this craving for scientific information by a lecture on "Water." Fortunately he at once abandoned the uncongenial venture.

"Protestantism has not declined in the city of Philadelphia." The surplus of receipts, one is glad to observe, was "appropriated to benevolent purposes."

Aside from the public which cared only for such spectacular lecturers as could confound them with their eloquence or startle with their revelations, there existed a sober group in each community eager for cultural improvement. From them the Lyceum was formed, the Mechanics' Institute and the Young Men's Literary Society. Emerson, in common with other intellectual leaders of the day, hoped much from this movement. Writing to Carlyle to urge upon him an American visit (April 8, 1836), he becomes lyric over its possibilities:

> In New England the Lyceum, as we call it, is already a great institution. Beside the more elaborate courses of lectures in the cities, every country town has its weekly evening meeting, called a Lyceum, and every professional man in the place is called upon, in the course of the winter, to entertain his fellow-citizens with a discourse on whatever topic. The topics are miscellaneous as heart can wish. But in Boston, Lowell, Salem, courses are given by individuals. I see not why this is not the most flexible of all organs of opinion, from its popularity and from its newness, permitting you to say what you think, without any shackles of prescription. The pulpit in our age certainly gives forth an obstructed and uncertain sound, and the faith of those in it, if men of genius, may differ so much from that of those under it, as to embarrass the conscience of the speaker, because so much is attributed to him from the fact of standing there. In the Lyceum nothing is presupposed. The orator is only responsible for what his lips articulate. Then what scope it allows! You may handle every member and relation of humanity. What could Homer, Socrates, or St. Paul say that can not be said here!

Such serious audiences were naturally the main support of Emerson's lecture tours. In Cincinnati the Young Men's Mercantile Library Association assured him listeners for his discourse on "Manners." Rochester called him through the Athenaeum and Mechanics' Association;[2] in Hartford he was presented by the Young Men's Institute. Pittsburgh procured the course of lectures on the "Conduct of Life" (1857) through the agency of a

[2] In his second lecture there he looks forward to the time when the Lyceum will be relied on "for our best entertainment and most elevated thoughts."

group of young men bearing a name similar to that adopted by the association in Cincinnati.

The typical situation which was helping onward a kind of intellectual awakening through the country is detailed in the the *Toronto Globe* for October 20, 1860:

> The popular lecture we consider a most useful, nay, in every well-organized community a most necessary institution. During the past two or three seasons the wants of Toronto have been exceedingly well provided for. We remember the time when it was otherwise, when the list of lectures and the syllabus of subjects were drawn up by a Committee in which respectable Old Fogeyism largely predominated and which year after year presented the same stereotyped list of lectures on the same trite subjects by the same merely local celebrities. Under such management the popular lecture was a failure. At last a body of spirited young men, organized under the title of the Ontario Literary Society, took the matter out of the hands of the Old Fogey Committee, and by adopting an entirely different method have succeeded in making our annual course of winter lectures something like what ought to be. Under the auspices of this Society we have had lectures from Horace Greeley, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry Giles, Dr. Chapin, Bayard Taylor, and D'Arcy McGee.... There is a half-promise that Henry Ward Beecher, Wendell Phillips and John B. Gough will come later in the season.

Like his admirer Matthew Arnold, Emerson believed passionately in the necessity of educating the "saving remnant" which he firmly hoped to find among the young men who congregated about him. His faith in the ability of democracy to provide its own leaders and cast out from its midst, by a painful evolution, ignorance, superstition and provincialism, rings with the same conviction that animated the English reformers contemporary with him. He humorously but devoutly confirms this conviction in a letter written to Carlyle in 1837 (September 13):

> There are in this country so few scholars, that the services of each studious person are needed to do what he can for the circulation of thoughts, to the end of making some counterweight to the money force, and to give such food as he may to the nigh starving youth. So I religiously read lectures every winter, and at other times whenever summoned. Last year the "Philosophy of History," twelve lectures; and now I meditate a course on what I call "Ethics." I peddle out all the wit I can gather from Time or from Nature and am pained at heart to see how thankfully that little is received.

There remains, in memoirs and articles, abundant testimony of Emerson's power with the youth of the country. One cannot read Lowell's comment on the new course of lectures *(The Nation,* 1868) without sharing the excitement of the critic; reviewing the first days of Emerson's lecturing in Boston, he remembers the charmed audience at the Masonic Temple, listening to "that thrilling voice of his, so charged with subtle meaning and subtle music, as ship-wrecked men on a raft to the hail of a ship that came with unhoped-for food and rescue." Cynics might accuse his followers of being misled by mists and magic-lantern pictures but they were conscious that he had freed them from the stocks of prose, "in which we had sat so long that we had grown well-nigh contented in our cramps .... To some of us that long-past experience remains as the most marvellous and fruitful we have ever had. Emerson awakened us, saved us from the body of this death."

Another idolator, Mr. John Albee, records how these diseiples of Emerson in trying to imitate his style and reproduce his opinions suffered rebuke under the adjective "Emersonian." Put on the defensive by the ridicule directed at their transcendental flights they became "more or less concealed and silent except with sympathizers." It was often not quite respectable, it seems, to be a follower of Emerson in the early days of his public recognition. "We had been made to believe so long that nearly everything which was agreeable was sinful that it had grown into a morbid sensibility to opinion."

The band of Emersonians grew, led by such men as Moncure D. Conway, Lowell and Greeley. Men who had felt the lift of his doctrine in their younger years defended him and looked to him for guidance in the difficult days of the mid-century. "To him more than to all other causes together," Lowell declares, "did the young martyrs of our civil war owe the sustaining strength of thoughtful heroism that is so touching in every record of their lives." That his influence transcended sectional interest is strikingly proved by the fact that within little more than a decade of the conclusion of the war the University of Virginia invited him, a late leader in the Abolitionist cause, to lecture on the "Natural and Permanent Function of the Scholar."

In Rochester before an audience of 1200 (February 9, 1851)

he called his league of youth into the strife for a new America. Armored by wisdom and power they may accomplish all things. Strength alone may achieve much, and that the people of the States have in abundance. "For some peculiar evils and sins we make up by spirit and energy everywhere. The half-orators and half-assassins that are sent from the far-west to represent the rude people of that region in Congres are of value to keep the country mindful of what is due to that vigorously growing country. By and by the Buffalo hunters will come to have reason and cultivate good manners.... The evil rabble at Washington is really better than a snivelling opposition. Their spirit is of a bold and manly cast, though Satanic.... An ancient writer said that poetry and religion derive energy from hell; and it is generally esteemed that a little wickedness is good to make muscle. Like fire and electricity, this sinfulness and excess of virility is to be conquered to use and will be found of advantage."

Such doctrine of the value of sheer muscularity was not unwelcome to his youthful public, of course, but he happened to believe it himself and hoped to build on it certain less palatable truths. No one can maintain that he flattered his audiences. In fact he frequently shocked and alarmed them with the fervent desire of disturbing the conventional patterns of their lives. Who but Emerson would have had the temerity to address a crowd in Cincinnati on "Manners" while her citizens were still blistered with the reflections of Mrs. Trollope on the nastiness of their domestic habits? Probably no American has ever dared what he dared before the American Institute, a group of New England teachers meeting at their State Capitol, when, after the chaplain had offered an introductory invocation calling for God's blessing on the assembly, Emerson stepped briskly into place and commenced his address with a brilliant preface on the uselessness of prayer! In 1837 he gave his friends in the audience uncomfortable moments by braving public opinion in his praise of the Abolitionist Lovejoy, recently shot to death by an Illinois mob. Some years before the Civil War he aroused the anger of a crowd at Cambridgeport by affronting New England's idol, Daniel Webster. "In Daniel Webster," he said, in a voice as if he were stating a plain matter of fact, "in Daniel Webster, where other men have a conscience, there is a great hole."

It is plain that Emerson often drove himself to the task of pre-

paring new lessons for his public, that many of the incidentals of the profession of an orator irked him. Constantly he was oppressed by a sense of futility and failure, resulting, he thought, from his extreme diffidence. To Norton he writes from Philadelphia on January 26, 1843: "It is because I am so idle a member of society; because men turn me by their mere presence to wood and to stone; because I do not get the lesson of the world where it is set before me, that I need more than others to run out into new places and multiply my chances for observation and communion." He found difficulty, too, in overcoming a fastidiousness before the crudeness of American life, as a confession in the *Journal* (VIII, p. 109) shows: "I have made no note of these long weary absences at New York and Philadelphia. I am a bad traveller, and the hotels are mortifications to all sense of well-being in me. The people who fill them oppress me with their excessive virility and would soon become intolerable if it were not for a few good friends, who, like women, tempered the acrid mass."

Even the homage he received in each new city was cooled by the realization that little of it came from genuine understanding. The tribe of reporters—most of them really eager to present detailed accounts of his lectures—he disliked extremely. They so misrepresented him with their foolish praise and false emphasis that he often requested them not to make use of their notes in reporting his lectures.[3]

It is difficult to find a definite account of the physical impression Emerson made on his audiences. The descriptions range from the rhapsodies of his disciples in New England to the occasionally cold and even jocular reports of western writers viewing him for the first time. The following, from the pen of a disciple, provides a good sample of the first style:

> In a lecture he would often linger over a page, turning it back and forth, seeming to lose his place; suddenly at his strong points he would come down with tremendous emphasis, clenched hand and a voice that thrilled his hearers to their innermost being. Then a calm succeeded the relief of a rustle in the seats, the usual form of applause among Transcendental audiences. His voice was unmatchable by any I have ever heard; it had the potency and effect

[3] A letter to Carlyle on April 19, 1843 speaks of the lectures in New York: "The newspaper reports of them . . . were such offensive misstatements that I could not send you, as I wished, a sketch."

of eloquence with not a single one of the traditional characteristics of it.

It was precisely this lack of the expected oratorical flamboyance that displeased his less sympathetic hearers. They preferred the enchantments of Mr. Raymond of the *New York Times* whose "scale of physiology" was medium but well-proportioned, hair and whiskers "raven black and plenty," eye keen, dark and piercing; or even more the power of the Reverend Mr. Chapin, described by the *Toronto Globe*, in spite of the fact that he "brings to the platform a stout body rather heavily proportioned for his height," as the most "gorgeous word-painter on the American Continent." Can anyone doubt it after reading this specimen in the desired mode?[4]

> O! mother, mother! Name for the divine relationship, symbol of the divine tenderness, kindling a love that we never blush to confess and a veneration that we cannot help rendering; how does your mystic influence impart from the soft pressure and undying smile wear itself through all the brightness, through all the darkness of our life!... And when on this familiar heart our own vital lamp burns low, and the golden bowl begins to shudder, and the silver cord to untwine, let our last look be upon the faces that we best love; let the gates that open into the celestial city be those well-known doors—and thus may *we* also die at home.

The mid-century audience expected from its entertainer an emotional "kick." He should be handsome or eloquent; if possible, both. It is significant that the reporters tried desperately to discover these qualities in Emerson. One admirer hears him speak as "an inhabitant of heaven and with the inspiration and authority of a prophet," in spite of his hesitancy and lack of the conventional style. The *Chicago Daily Tribune* (March 5, 1867) is delighted to discover that he is not a mere "dry metaphysical philosopher, uttering always didactical and oracular sentences without descending to the level of humor."

For frank and observant curiosity nothing surpasses the following description in the Cincinnati *Daily Gazette* for January 28, 1857:

> Mr. Emerson is a tall man, full six feet high, but slender and bony, and in his plain suit of ill-fitting black, looked not unlike a New England country schoolmaster. His face is thin and strongly marked, his nose large, and his eye-brows arched and meeting. He

[4] Toronto *Daily Leader*. January 28, 1860).

rarely looks his hearers full in the face, but at emphatic expressions has a habit of turning his eyes backward as though he desired to look in at himself. His voice is like his sentences—not smooth nor even, yet occasionally giving a tone of considerable sweetness, and he has an auricular way of delivering himself that is calculated to impress the audience.

When introduced to the audience, he stood straight up, exhibiting his tall form—then looked down bashfully at the manuscript in his hand, then advanced rather ungracefully to the stand, and with an appearance of embarrassment, and in a half apologetic, introductory tone, began.

There is no better tribute to Emerson's effectiveness as a speaker than the strong reaction which he inevitably produced on those reporting his lectures. The judgment may vary from eulogy to ridicule but it is never merely reportorial. Selections from these accounts, distributed geographically, afford a fair means of judging the provincialism, prejudices, and comparative intellectual development of the parts of the country from which they come.

In New England the appraisals are usually laudatory, partly, of course, through local pride but also, one may believe, because audiences there made some effort to understand Emerson's teaching and pursue it. Yearly, lyceums and colleges heard his voice and grew accustomed to the disjointed character of his thinking until his early hearers, now old men, fondly recalled the vividly remembered, invigorating impact of his first lectures.

One is therefore surprised at the somewhat resentful tone of the reports of his lecture at Hartford, Connecticut (December 14, 1858). The *Courant* admits that everyone acknowledges his genius (though he looks like an awkward country minister) but many complain that his lectures was "too densely packed with original thoughts and figures." The *Times* is not so restrained. It complains of his off-hand style of delivery, of the overflowing "Boston Conceit" with which he, "like certain other literary celebrities is fully saturated." His intellect is to be respected, especially for its "unfaltering interior researches into the hidden law and nature of man's own essential self." This praise carries a sting, however—"Emerson, to use a vulgar western figure of speech, 'dives down deeper, stays down longer and comes up drier' than any other such explorer of modern times." After twitting the lecturer on his old-fashioned coat, and noting his strong and expressive eye, the reviewer ends abruptly and not too

gently: "We judge that half the audience were disappointed in him."

A delightful communication published in the Providence *Manufacturers' and Farmers' Journal* after Emerson's address at the opening of the Green Street School (June 10, 1837), subsequently made famous by Margaret Fuller's labors there, helps to explain the grudging praise of such reports as the foregoing. Mr. W. V. has been vastly impressed by the "auspicious and delightful omen" of the opening of the school though he feels it his duty to point out several pitfalls in the path of learning. One can see that the main object of his letter is to reproach Mr. Emerson for the unintelligibility of his address:

> I must frankly own, notwithstanding Mr. Emerson's high and just celebrity as a scholar and a writer, that I was much disappointed; in other words, there was much of what he said that I could not possibly understand. I had anticipated a rich treat. I have heard Mr. Emerson when he was more beautifully, calmly, and sublimely eloquent and so have hundreds and thousands. There are few gentlemen in our country, perhaps none, of a more cultivated mind or inspired with loftier sentiments than Mr. R. Waldo Emerson. In our literary hemisphere he is one of the brightest stars. But our philosophy teaches us to call no man master.... If we cannot understand what ideas a speaker or writer attaches to the simplest words in our mother tongue, we think that calling his discourse "transcendentalism" is speaking of it in very mild terms.... I am not unwilling, Mr. Editor, to do justice to Mr. Emerson—he is a strong man even in his weakness. The intelligible parts of his address I admired in common with everyone, and I have no doubt that the whole of it was dictated by very philanthropic and refined feelings. But his friends must try to pardon it, if some persons here in Providence have not yet acquired a taste for Germano-Sartor-Resartorism.

Posterity will be relieved to know that Mr. W. V. headed no anti-Emerson cabal in Providence and that the youth of the city (represented in the Young Men's Association) rated their coming into "contact with this New England movement [i.e. Transcendentalism] and especially with its leader and moderator... the cardinal event" of their young manhood. Yet the evident fact remains that many of Emerson's hearers, otherwise eager to follow his lead, persisted in condemning him for preaching a philosophy to which, as a matter of fact, he was never completely converted.

New York City apparently received Emerson as an especially choice guest. He was fortunate in having there, as an admiring supporter, Horace Greeley, whose power with the intellectuals had been immensely strengthened by Emerson's final commitment to the anti-slavery cause. But his *Tribune* was not alone in greeting the Sage from New England. "G. O." of the *Evening Post* reports the first lecture in the series of 1843 with a pious enthusiasm that is by no means conventional rhetoric. For him Emerson's gaucheries as a speaker disappear in a "perfect harmony" so that "while listening, we are breathing in and enriched by, an atmosphere of serenity, that expands and exhilarates while it purifies." What to Mr. W. V. had been Transcendental gibberish is to him pellucid, though it "sounds like mysticism." In short, "he renews our health."

Emerson's triumphs as an orator were evidently most often of an undemonstrative sort. One New York appearance, however, was distinctly a *succès fou*. He had been invited to conclude the series of lectures conducted in 1854 by the New York Anti-Slavery Society. Attracted by his fame and the subject, crowds fought at the entrance of the Broadway Tabernacle. Long before his arrival people were being turned from the doors. It was the fourth anniversary of Webster's infamous pro-slavery speech, the "Seventh of March," and Emerson had bared his hands to deal with the apostate as he deserved. Scholars, he admitted, should not meddle with dangerous political questions but the newspapers have made all men readers and so compel those whose business it is to think to utter what wisdom they may possess. The address, setting aside its transitory value as an attack on Webster, is a forceful assertion of the obligation of educated men, "by virtue of their greatness to be always on the side of the Eternal Right." Before the delighted and uproarious audience could be persuaded to go home when Emerson had concluded, Horace Greeley was forced to show himself (educated, eminent, eternally right) and dismiss them with his blessing.

Philadelphia seems to have been quite unimpressed by Emerson's various visits of enlightenment. Nor did he, in consequence, perhaps, of this indifference, find it congenial. His first letter to Norton during his stay there in 1843 (January 24) is, in fact, almost libellous. He can discover no common spirit animating this collection of homes, "lying very peacefully together," nor even

any remarkable individuals. "In the absence of the usual excitements of trade, the whole body certainly wears a very lymphatic appearance; one might call it, but for the disrespect to the divine sex, a very large granny." Public opinion defers to New York and fears Boston. There is not even a second best in the camp, and he glances apprehensively at the stars at night lest they disappear in the dull air.

During the subsequent interval of ten years no pronounced Emersonian cult arose to lessen his dislikes for the city. The only notice to be discovered in the *Ledger* of his visit in 1854 is a supposedly jocose reference, on the day after the first lecture (January 13), to "Mr. Emerson's Idea of Pork"—a quotation from his address at New Bedford in the course of which he had said: "what coal has been to England, wheat to the Nile, or peaches to New Jersey, pork has been to the West. The largest owner of pigs is the hero of the prairie."

Perhaps the special reporter was so diligent in attendance on the other more exciting attractions the city afforded this particular evening that he could not be present at the opening of Emerson's series. Certainly the citizens of Philadelphia had plenty to choose from in the way of diversion. At the Chinese Museum the "distinguished Irish patriot," Mr. John Mitchell, waited to be shaken by the hand. The Goodwill Fire Company invited attendance at its Annual Ball. At the New Museum one could view "a shaking Quaker and one of the most eccentric things on earth. He is Master of Music, performing as he does on six Instruments at once." Many potential subscribers must have assisted at the continuing triumphs of the "chaste Ethiopian Troupe—Chambers Minstrels"—now in the eighth week of their success. Not a few were enticed to "Vannuchi's Museum of Wax Statuary in Rich Costume" by the unwonted attraction of "Mrs. Tom Thum, Queen of the Lilliputians," who could be seen that evening without extra charge.

Emerson's friendship with William Henry Furness was the chief inducement which drew him to return repeatedly to the city. Through him details of price and subject were arranged and by his effort patrons sufficient in number to guarantee the courses were secured. Thus on one occasion "five and twenty persons (elect & such as are to be saved) have agreed to pay $10 each for the course." The kindnesses of Furness and the other faithful

Emersonians gathered round him Emerson carries "as a stock to think on" in his long and arduous tour into Wisconsin and Minnesota in the spring of 1854.

If New England's admiration was occasionally tempered with the frank disagreement of a neighbor and friend, if New York listened with the satisfaction which results from having one's cause ably espoused, while Philadelphia was not to be charmed into discipleship at all, the Middle West accepted Emerson on his own terms. There is a moving eagerness in the reports published in such towns as Pittsburgh, Cincinnati and Kalamazoo which, in the desire to be taught, indicates a nascent culture. Transcendental flights are easily forgiven the bearer of good news and his failure as an orator is more than compensated for by the "richness of his discourse."

In centers where, through immigration, New England influence was great, his advent was well-heralded. In Kalamazoo, for instance, Mrs. Lucinda Stone, able coadjutor to her college-president husband, champion of the inalienable right of her sex to higher education (through whose efforts, since college training had been denied her in the East, the girls of Michigan were later allowed to become doctors and lawyers), opened her house to him. She and Professor Stone saw to it that their classes were well indoctrinated in Platonic idealism before Emerson's arrival so that they might listen more intelligently to his lecture. The *Western Messenger,* issued at Cincinnati and at Louisville, Kentucky, during the six years of its existence from 1835-1841, brought to the members of the Western Unitarian Association eulogistic accounts of his lecturing and writing. In the college towns exiles from the East gathered around him as an ambassador from the mother country, plied him with questions and begged for a reading from one of the manuscripts headed *Power, Resources, Culture, Success,* with which his portfolio was stuffed.

In spite of the labor of these western missions, Emerson drew genuine enjoyment from them. Like Samuel Johnson touring the Hebrides he sought information everywhere with the result that he spoke with authority on the progress of American institutions. To Furness he writes of the expedition of 1854: "I went as far as Milwaukee, and, fault of broken railroad, the last 65 miles in an open carriage; and found true what a letter told me, that 'the world was done up in large lots in Wisconsin.' I am afraid the

space is the most interesting feature. The farmer is also a colonist, and draws great doses of energy from his local necessities. One look around heedfully, too, because it is plainly the heroic age of Wisconsin, and we are spectators *Anno Urbis Conditae.*"

His occasional over-enthusiasm for the developments that he witnessed once drew the satire of Bret Harte *(Overland Monthly,* October 1870). Emerson marvels, in *Society and Solitude (Civilization),* at the rapidity with which culture invades the log-cabin—as if pianos were to be found under pine-stumps. "With it comes a Latin grammar, and one of these tow-head boys has written a hymn on Sunday. Now let colleges, now let Senates take heed!" Harte snorts at this: "If Mr. Emerson had been an observer instead of a philosopher, if he had ever studied the frontier and not evolved it from his moral consciousness, he would know that the piano appears first in the saloon and gambling house; that the elegancies and refinements of civilizations are brought into barbarism with the first civilized idlers, who are generally vicious; that the proprietor of the 'log-hut' and the 'tow-headed boy' will be found holding out against piano and Latin grammar until he is obliged to emigrate."

Since the record of Emerson's appearance in Pittsburgh during March and April of 1851, as reported in the *Gazette,* is remarkably full, it will, given in outline, supply an example of the kind of cordial reception he always received in the Middle West. Ten days before the first lecture the course is announced in an advertisement which is repeated six times. On the morning of this first announcement the editor congratulates the Young Men's Mercantile Library Association on securing the lectures and assures his readers that they will "have the effect of raising the literary tastes of our citizens which are apt to sicken and droop under our close business and money-making habits." Though one must confess that the lecturer is a thorough transcendentalist, he is, the editor hastens to add, far superior to anyone of his class "with whose works we are acquainted." Three days later the editorial column carries a long story from a back number of the *Home Journal,* written by Mr. Willis and describing his favorable impression of Emerson as a lecturer.

Each address of the series, except the last, is reviewed. Careful note is made of Emerson's lack of impassioned language and violent gesticulation, but these *desiderata* are excused as unsuit-

able to the "calm dignity essential to him who comes to instruct rather than to charm." Hesitant subscribers were doubtlessly emboldened when they read that the composition was "chaste and natural, marked by nothing of that *transcendentalism which has been attributed to him.*" The fifth address, in which Culture was to be defined, drew a "most intellectual audience" whose hearty approbation permits the reporter to declare that "no course has been so well attended in this city, nor has ever afforded so much gratification to our citizens."

About the time Emerson unfolded his first lecture Mr. O. S. Fowler opened a course in Phrenology, in which profession, it seems, he led his American colleagues. The presence of two such distinguished professors in Pittsburgh impel an editorial rhapsody over the city's intellectual renaissance:

> Verily, Pittsburgh is becoming a home for all schools of philosophy! We have lectures on the practical philosophy of life, experiments in the philosophy of spiritual manifestations, feminine lectures on female "rights, wrongs, and destiny," [This refers to a Mrs. Coe whose audiences were too meager to satisfy the ambitious editor.] lectures on Phrenology and all the questions connected with it, besides clairvoyance, mesmerism &. Instead of Pittsburgh being merely a plodding, business, dollar-loving city, it is becoming a great lyceum; and all its citizens will soon be philosophers. As each one of the schools now represented among us differs essentially from all the others, it is to be presumed that the seed of many a fireside debate is already sown.... There is nothing like discussion to bring up new facts and set common truths in their proper light.
>
> P. S. Since the above was written, Mr. C. S. Chase has called and requested us to announce that he will, in a day or two, commence a course of lectures to the people of Pittsburgh, with experiments in pathetism, to illustrate the laws that induce somnambulism, trance, ghost-seeing, clairvoyance, somnipathy, knockings &., &.; also teeth extracted without pain or expense. The cry is still they come!

To the modern reader this sounds like irony; it would be a mistake so to interpret it. It is obvious that Emerson had to take his chance with Jenny Lind (who was promised to Pittsburgh at this time), panoramas, mesmerists, phrenologists, boy-orators, demonstrators of animal magnetism, temperance cranks and exposers of the Roman anti-Christ. As the editor remarks, saying more than he intended: "Although there must be a great deal of

error set forth as truth, there can be little danger that the latter will fail to triumph.

The Far West needed to be shown. Faults that eastern audiences overlooked are candidly discussed west of the Mississippi and not always forgiven. The *Detroit Advertiser* alludes in February 1854 to the misfortunes of lecturers venturing into the West:

> There appears to be a fatality this year attending the efforts of the "wise men of the East" to enlighten the western darkness. "Something breaks" every time they appear before a western audience. The innocent looking E. P. Whipple, the "tall and gaunt" Ralph Waldo Emerson have been tossed about among the western editors, until we doubt not they have been tempted to utter imprecations upon western taste and literary appreciation.

One senses a disgruntled feeling, as if the subscribers often believed the great Emerson was something of a cheat because his lectures were not sufficiently titillating. The slightest indication of condescension, so interpreted, was promptly rebuked. An incident occuring at DeWitt, Iowa, in January of 1886 shows how roughly the reporters could handle him. In order to take a train which would allow him to fulfill another engagement the next evening, Emerson raced through his lecture with one eye constantly on his watch. He escapes from DeWitt with a reportorial drubbing:

> It is needless to speak of his ability as a scholar and orator, for his reputation is world-wide; but one thing we must say, and that is: Mr. Emerson treated his audience in a most indifferent and insulting manner.... Now, we look at it in this way: Mr. Emerson had received his price from the Association for his lecture, and the citizens had paid the Association the fee of admission to hear it delivered, and for Mr. Emerson to then withhold half of it, is not a very genteel way of swindling people.[5]

At Cedar Falls (February 20, 1867) his discourse was appreciated for its shrewd sayings and "sprinklings of wit." But his utterance was noted as being hesitating and he was observed not to excel in the arts of the orator. A resident of Keokuk finds that "after Taylor with his harp, Emerson was decidedly monotone, not a variation of tone or feature from commencement to close." At Davenport (the lecture of December 20, 1867 was on

[5] For most of the information concerning Emerson in the Far West I am indebted to Mr. Hubert H. Hoeltje's exhaustive paper "Emerson in Iowa," published in the *Iowa Journal of History and Politics* for 1927.

Success) "the peculiar hop, skip, and jump style of the speaker, commencing a page and omitting half of it, or beginning in the middle, and, while reading the last part, turning over and laying aside two or three pages, certainly failed to make clear either what success is or how to attain it."

It is unfair, of course, to dwell heavily on these carping reports. All of them imply respect, if of a no very discriminating variety, for the wisdom of the speaker. But the contrast with the attitude toward Emerson in the East and Middle West is plain to see. Another Iowa paper points this difference neatly:

An audience has neither time nor disposition to separate the wheat from the chaff, and then in addition measure the wheat for the market. The chief satisfaction derived from the lecture was the *fact* that the audience had been listening to Emerson.

This is the way of primitive religion—and evidently of primitive culture as well; although the worshipper cannot comprehend the portentous utterance of the god, he is conscious of power transferred by contact with divinity.

In the history of the civilizing of America this story of Emerson's schoolmastering of a nation is singularly stirring. A man of his tastes could have persuaded himself that his duty lay in the cultivation of his own soul in the idyllic ease of Concord. Yet, without over-rating his possibilities of accomplishment, he set about doing what he exhorted other scholars and thinkers to do. He saw clearly the greatest danger of a democracy, that in a state where the strong and raw winds of false doctrine are let loose to play upon the earth, the feeble voice of truth may easily be drowned. Holding with Milton that in a free and open encounter he had never known truth put to the worse, he saw nothing ridiculous in competing with P. T. Barnum's freaks and the raven-whiskered Mr. Raymond, minstrel shows and bump-readers. Nor did he yield to the pressure, in such a difficult encounter, to vulgarize his instruction. When he lectured on Success, it was with no intention of offering formulae, like his fellow showmen who distributed panaceas for all the ills and aspirations of mankind. He preferred to challenge their postulates. He had, moreover, the temerity—rare with the best school-masters—to present his pupils in scores of communities with the tools of wisdom, sharpened and powerful, with which they were to reconstruct their thinking.

AN ANALYSIS OF SPEECHES IN PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGNS FROM 1884 TO 1920

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PRESIDENT HARDING once said that government might be a simple thing, but winning elections was a sophisticated performance.[1] Perhaps one of the important elements in this sophisticated performance is the question as to what shall be said and what shall be left unsaid in giving a political speech.

The present study undertakes to analyze the subject matter of outstanding speakers in presidential campaigns since 1884. In addition there is included a study of technique, as far as the numbers of analogies and rhetorical questions are concerned, and a study of the nature of introductions and conclusions. The main emphasis, however, is not on technique, but on subject matter—unless, of course, one considers the selection of subject matter as a part of technique.

Only 145 complete speeches were found for the campaigns studied. The libraries of Madison, Chicago, and Cleveland were searched. Doubtless more speeches could be found, but they would be widely scattered.[2]

The method of compiling data was to count the number of words in six full-length lines, and then to find the number of lines to an inch or centimeter, and then to measure the length of the speech. By multiplying the words per line by the number of lines the approximate number of words in the speech was arrived at, due allowance being allowed for paragraphing, headings, etc. Several tests were made which showed the method to be sufficiently accurate. It might be observed that newspaper men use this method of counting words. Using the same method it was possible to find the number of words devoted to class appeals, refutation or any other division of a speech being investigated.

Fortunately the speeches as found were divergent enough not

[1] LIPPMAN, WALTER, *Public Opinion*, New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1922, p. 286.

[2] An exception should be noted. In a few cases, such as for Harding in 1920 and Harrison in 1888, all the speeches of the candidate were printed in one volume. In such cases only a sampling was taken.

to overload the compilation and affect the results. They were diverse as to speaker, locality, audience, length, method of delivery, and time in the campaign. It must be said, however, that practically no speeches were obtained from the South. They do not talk about elections in the South—they merely vote. Speeches were obtained, when possible, not only from cities, but from small towns. This was not so difficult as might be imagined. Frequently in former days a campaign in a state was opened in a small town, and speeches given on such occasions were printed in the newspapers of the cities. Thus it was, on the whole, that a fairly good sampling of the whole round of campaign speaking was obtained.

When a speech was found it was analyzed in regard to the following twenty-four considerations.

1. *Arguments on Campaign Issues.* This includes such topics as the tariff, currency, League of Nations. Throughout all of the speeches just a little over half (.555) of the speaker's time was spent in discussion of questions of governmental policy. It might be added that very little of this was spent in fair and logical discussion. It seems that the common practice of political speakers is to assume that the opposition means something absurdly unbelievable. I am at loss to recall a single speech which stated the case of the opposition in a fair manner, and only half a dozen or so were in any other way fair to the opposition. The tariff has easily been the outstanding issue over the period, consuming one-fifth (.191) of the discussion throughout the whole period. But in some elections it was scarcely mentioned.

2. *Class Appeals.* Out of 145 speeches 56 made some class appeal. Labor (.042) was approached almost twice as much as agriculture (.023). The rest of the class appeals were negligible.

3. *Achievements of Party.* This does not include telling the glories and historical honors of the party. Rather it includes the soundness of party principles as proved by their success in the previous administration or one not entirely removed from the present governmental problems. It frequently has to do with the achievements of the party in passing efficient tariff laws, fighting a war efficiently, practicing governmental economies, etc.

For the most part, of course, achievements were mentioned by the party in power. Of all the speaking analyzed the proportion devoted to this appeal was .068—approximately 10% for the party in power. The party record for the previous three years received

most attention, but occasionally the achievements of former administrations were pointed out.

It might seem that a party's most substantial claim for favor would be on the basis of its accomplishments. But, as a matter of fact, the process of government goes on with little regard for party control. A typical example of the emptiness of this appeal might be pointed out in the election of 1904. The completion of the Panama Canal was one of the Republican boasts, but that was just as much a Democratic accomplishment as a Republican. So, while theoretically the argument from the achievements of the party seems to be sound, it has actually little sound reasoning behind it.

4. *Appeals to Party Loyalty.* The typical appeal of the Republican party was that it had "saved the Union." The Democrats boasted their descent from Thomas Jefferson and Andrew Jackson. About one-fourth of the speakers used this appeal, the proportion of all the speaking being .023. It undoubtedly makes for party success to build an institutional pride from election to election. But from the standpoint of wise government it is not justified. So this appeal, while it makes for party victory, does not necessarily make for good government.

5. *Defending Party Character.* All through the study one party has been more or less on the defense as to its general character. The Democrats were long under the shadow of the Civil War. Then came the accusation, in the time of Bryan, of being anarchistic and irresponsible. At the same time the Republicans came to be tainted with "big business." But the only elections in which the Democrats defended themselves to any extent were in 1896 and 1900. The proportion for all elections and both parties is .006.

6. *Attacking Party Record.* This is the direct opposite of Number 3 above. It is frequently taught as a principle of salesmanship that competitors should be ignored and that the salesman should use his effort to gain the favorable attention of the prospect instead of diverting the customer to a negative consideration of the competitors. Good political speakers, however, do not seem to follow this principle. They spend more time (.078) in attacking the opposition than in pointing out the achievements of their own party (.068).

7. *Attacking Party Character.* This is the direct opposite of Number 5 above, and is a negative, rather than a positive argu-

ment. Like the preceding consideration it has a relatively high proportion (.049).

8. *Praising Party Leaders.* For the most part this has to do with the candidate for the presidency. Occasionally the candidate for the vice-presidency is mentioned. Very, very seldom is anything said about other leading lights of the party. The proportion (.016) is rather low. This must be taken into consideration, however, that nearly a fifth of the speeches were given by candidates themselves, in which case it would not be used.

9. *Defending Party Leaders.* Almost as much is said (.012) in defense as in praise of party leaders, which would not seem to be good psychology. But there were many more who praised (50) than defended (16). The explanation is that when a speaker undertook to defend a party leader he spent more time on the average than the person who praised a party leader. My impression is that many of the speakers toward the ends of their speeches made a little flourish of praise.

10. *Attacking Party Leaders.* For the most part, personal attacks center around Blaine, Cleveland, Bryan, Roosevelt and Wilson. Contrast this with Number 8. There we found the positive aspect of the argument used .016 of the speaking time. But in Number 10 we find .086. This agrees with our previous observation that more emphasis was given the negative aspect of argument.

11. *Accusation of Favoring Big Business.* This is wholly Democratic ammunition. It was used by 24 speakers out of a total of 58 who campaigned for the Democratic party. Of all the Democratic speaking this division occupied .085 of their time.

12. *Accusation of Playing Politics.* Of 83 Republican speakers 19 accused the opposition of playing politics. Of 58 Democrats 11 used the same accusation, as did three of the four Progressives. It should be noted that most of these came since 1900, a period in which it was doubtless more true than before.

13. *Bombast.* Without making any argument, without making any specific attack it is possible for a speaker to disparage the opposition. The proportion (.013) is doubtless lower for the best speakers (such as are included in this study) than for less prominent speakers.

14. *Humor and Goodfellowship.* Incidental humor is not included in this division. Only when a speaker sets out obviously to enter-

tain his audience is material given credit in this classification. Out of 145 speakers only 51 did this and the total amount was .011.

15. *Appeals for Disinterested Devotion to National Welfare.* This is usually an appeal to ignore party lines. It also includes certain types of patriotic utterances. Such as appeal is frequently found in the speeches of men who are not professional politicians. Professional politicians sometimes use it when in the enemy's country. For example, Blaine used it in Virginia. Altogether 39 speakers used it for a total of .020.

16. *Asserting Personal Disinterestedness.* Most of the speakers were professional politicians, obviously interested, and some were even candidates. So the number of speakers who could assert their personal disinterestedness was small. Yet there were 17 who made such assertions, showing it was quite widely used if applicable.

17. *Complimenting Audience.* Only 22 out of 145 speakers complimented their audiences. But since a great many prepared their speeches for publication it may be taken for granted that the proportion would be somewhat higher if the full facts could be obtained.

18. *Predicting Victory.* There were 32 speakers who predicted victory. It is interesting to note that 19 of these predictions came true.

19. *Analogies.* There was an average of one analogy for each 980 words. They were more frequent in the earlier part of the study, accounted for, perhaps, by the fact that the speeches were more formal and carefully prepared when published in later campaigns.

20. *Rhetorical Questions.* There was an average of one rhetorical question to each 312 words. The observation made about analogies holds in this instance, too, namely that there were fewer in the later campaigns.

21. *Refutation.* Of 145 speeches studied 84 contained some refutation, making a total proportion of .147. It should be said that very little of this refutation was both fair and complete. In a great many cases the speaker attributed to the opposition an impossible meaning,—so impossible, in fact, as to be patently absurd.

22. *Proportions of Speech.* I do not believe any one has ever measured the length of introduction, body and conclusion for a number of speeches. It should, therefore, be interesting to know

that these speeches averaged .090 of their length for the introduction, .858 for the body, and .051 for the conclusion.

23. *Kinds of Introductions.* As far as I know this is the first list of the kinds of introductions to be compiled inductively. As each speech was read the types of material were noted. Following is a list as found in all the speeches studied. Seldom was one kind of introduction found by itself. The average was almost exactly two and a half elements for the average introduction. Below are given the types of introduction, and the numbers in parentheses indicate the total number of times each was found throughout the study.

I. *Partitioning.* When a speaker divided his subject into parts, or when he set forth the limits or objects of his discussion, it was called a partitioning introduction. (Found in 91 of the speeches.)
II. *Personal.* Any reference by the speaker to himself. (82)
III. *Historical.* (43)
IV. *General.* This term is used to denote the introduction in which the speaker set forth some general principle or fundamental truth which might be applied to the situation under discussion. (33)
V. *Complimentary.* This applies to complimentary statements of all kinds, whether about the audience as a whole, an individual within the audience, or the community. (29)
VI. *Conditional.* This is a new term in this connection. The speakers frequently made statements which had a bearing on their speeches as a whole. For example, a speaker may have shown the importance of the election, or that his method of treatment deserved special consideration, etc. Anything in the introduction which had a bearing on the reception of the speech as a whole was called "conditional." (26)
VII. *Reference to Occasion.* (19)
VIII. *Goodfellowship.* Humor, reminiscences, pleasantries, and like material were included in this category. (15)
IX. *Hortatory.* There were speeches in which the audience was exhorted to act at the very beginning before any evidence had been brought to its attention. (13)
X. *Illustrative.* (8)
XI. *Refutation.* (5)

24. *Kinds of Conclusions.* As with the introductions, so with the conclusions I believe this is the first publication of a list that has been inductively brought together. The elements in the conclusion averaged almost exactly one and a half for each speech.

I. *Hortatory.* (77)
II. *Summary.* (42)
III. *Climactic.* In this kind of conclusion the speaker used the last point as the conclusion. (27)
IV. *Personal.* (21)
V. *Conditional.* This is similar to the conditional introduction. (20)
VI. *Repetitive.* Repeating the substance of a point made earlier in the speech. (14)
VII. *Illustrative.* (7)
VIII. *Goodfellowship.* (5)
IX. *Refutation.* (4)
X. *Complimentary.* (3)
XI. *Historical.* (2)
XII. *General.* (1)
XIII. *Comparison of Candidates.* (1)
XIV. *Merely Announced the End.* (1)

In conclusion to this study it is necessary merely to say a few things about bibliography. After investigating several other very good libraries and after talking with people who are acquainted with still more collections, I believe that more speeches can be found in the State Historical Library at Madison than anywhere else with the exception of Washington, D. C. In partial support of this assertion is the fact that many of the speeches were obtained from newspaper files, and the library at Madison contains more files of newspapers than any library except the Congressional Library. It has more bound files than are to be found even at Washington which makes it much easier to work with them. In further support of the statement that Madison was a very satisfactory place to do this work is the fact that it seems evident that the collection of political pamphlets is not only larger than that of most libraries, but splendidly catalogued. And 42 of the 145 speeches were in pamphlet form.

The following collections were used, although if a stenographic report could be obtained the newspaper report was preferred. It might be noted that better reporting was done at the beginning of the study (1884) than toward the end (1920).

Depew, Chauncey, *Orations, Addresses, Speeches of.* Ed. by J. D. Champlin, New York, privately printed, 1910.
Harding, Warren G., *Speeches of.* Republican National Committee, 1920.

Harrison, Benjamin, *Speeches by.* Ed. by Charles Hedges. New York, United States Book Company, 1892.
McKinley, William, *Speeches and Addresses of.* New York, D. Appleton, 1893.
Schurz, Carl, *Speeches, Correspondence and Political Papers of. Ed.* by Frederick Bancroft. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1913.

SPEECH EDUCATION IN TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SPEECH EDUCATION IN TEACHERS COLLEGES AND NORMAL SCHOOLS

Approved by the national convention of the National Association of Teachers of Speech, New York City, January 1, 1930

THE Committee on Speech Education in Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools was authorized by the National Association of Teachers of Speech at its annual convention in Chicago, December 28, 1928. Its function, as expressed in the resolution creating the committee, was "to make a thorough study of the speech program in teachers colleges and normal schools throughout the country and report with recommendations within two years." The committee appointed by the president of the National Association of Teachers of Speech, Professor F. M. Rarig of the University of Minnesota, has consisted of the following members, each responsible for the states indicated.

C. P. LAHMAN, *Chairman*—Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan.
PEARL E. KULP—State Normal School, Cheney, Washington
Washington, Oregon, Idaho.
MYRTLE SAVIDGE—Montana State Normal College, Dillon, Montana
Montana, North Dakota.
VIRGINIA SANDERSON—State Teachers College, San Jose, California
California.
MARGARET BLACKBURN—Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colo.
Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico.
KATHRYN ROBB—St. Cloud State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota
Minnesota, South Dakota.
J. R. PELSMA—Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas
Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska.
G. W. CAMPBELL—Northern Illinois State Teachers College, De Kalb, Ill.
Illinois, Indiana, Iowa.

MARY VIRGINIA RODIGAN—State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Wisconsin.
F. B. MCKAY—Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan
Michigan, Ohio.
MAUD WEBSTER—East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas
Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas.
ALBERT M. FULTON—State Normal College, Natchitoches, Louisiana
Louisiana, Mississippi, Kentucky, Tennessee.
VERA ALICE PAUL—Georgia State Teachers College, Athens, Georgia
Georgia, Alabama, South Carolina, North Carolina.
E. TURNER STUMP—Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia
West Virginia, Virginia, Maryland.
EFFIE G. KUHN—New Jersey State Teachers College, Trenton, New Jersey
New Jersey, Rhode Island, Connecticut.
EDNA ARNOLD—State Teachers College, Shippensburg, Pennsylvania
Pennsylvania, New Hampshire.
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A. B. WILLIAMSON, New York University
Representing Colleges and Universities.

The following report gives data gathered by means of an exhaustive questionnaire sent to every teacher-training institution in continental United States listed in the "Educational Directory" of the Federal Bureau of Education for 1929. Teachers College of Columbia University and Winthrop College of South Carolina are the only other institutions included. Questionnaire reports were supplemented by study, on the part of committee members, of the current catalogs of the various institutions.

The committee believes that its findings are of value to teachers of speech everywhere and especially in teacher-training institutions, to teachers and students of education in general, and to educational administrators wherever prospective teachers are being trained, whether in normal school, university school of education, or college department of education.

Although a considerable number of institutions did not return questionnaires and although some of the questionnaires returned were incompletely or inaccurately filled out, significant information was secured from 85% of the teachers colleges and normal schools of the United States in regard to such matters as number and training of speech instructors, number of courses offered, courses required of prospective teachers, nomenclature of courses and departments, limitation of enrollment and class size, speech correction, the extra-curricular activities of dramatics and intercollegiate debate, suggestions for improvement from teachers in the field.

In this report no attempt has been made to distinguish between teachers colleges and so-called normal schools or between public and private institutions. So few replies were received from negro schools that none are included.

Immediately following the summary and recommendations are the statistical findings upon which they are based.

Summary and Recommendations

The present survey reveals that the Speech program in teachers colleges and normal schools shows definite progress, especially in the following respects:

(1) The academic training of instructors has definitely improved since the survey of 1922.[1]

(2) There has been a decrease in the number of institutions offering work on a purely elective basis.

(3) One-half of the institutions offering speech work follow a system of prerequisites for advanced courses. This development is emphasized in the greatly increased frequency of a general foundation course.

(4) In uniformity of nomenclature and standardization of approach there has been unmistakable improvement.

In view both of these gains and of the limitations, checked and suggested, offered by teachers in the field, the Committee on Speech Education in Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools offers the

[1] Lousene Rousseau: "Speech Education in the Normal Schools—A Survey," Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, VIII:3 pp. 209-217. This survey was based on the catalogs of 115 institutions.

following resolutions for approval by the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH.[2]

1. That the aim of speech education in teacher-training institutions, with consideration to both academic and professional aspects, should be that embodied in the following three-fold statement:

Our primary aim should be to serve the general body of students by cultivating acceptable speech standards, attitudes, appreciations and skills, with the thought constantly in mind that the individual thus qualified will function more proficiently both in the school and in the community. This aim includes both command of the scientific facts of speech as a means of social control and such personal qualifications as distinct and pleasing voice, bodily poise, confidence before an audience, communicativeness in speaking, and appreciative interpretation of literature.

Our secondary aim should be to serve groups of students, not necessarily specializing in speech as such, who are preparing to direct speech activities in elementary and secondary schools, by putting them in possession of special knowledge and special skills that are to function directly in the school situation. Examples are courses in story-telling, children's dramatics, and elementary phonetics.

A third aim, of concern to such teachers colleges as possess adequate facilities, should be to serve that group of students preparing to teach speech, whether in the elementary or in the secondary schools. This aim covers not only the development of those speech-personality qualifications which all prospective teachers should have, but, in addition, a knowledge of the principles of speech essential to the teaching of the subject, and a high degree of personal proficiency in one or more of the speech arts.

2. "That no teacher be considered adequately prepared to teach any phase of speech who has not had the same general academic training and educational background required for teachers in other academic branches."[3]

[2] As indicated earlier, these recommendations were adopted, unanimously, by the convention of the National Association of Teachers of Speech.

[3] Report of the Committee on Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges 1922, QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION, IX., 1, p. 108.

3. That to insure adequate emphasis, speech should be offered in a separate department, enjoying the same degree of independent action accorded to other departments; such independence to imply no lack of cooperation with other departments such as English.

4. That when speech work is handled in an independent department, for the sake of conformity with the most widely accepted usage and because the term is most inclusive, it is desirable that the department bear the name *Speech*.

5. That teacher-training institutions should provide an adequate, trained speech staff to administer a requirement that every student take at least one speech course.

6. That this required minimum should be a general foundation course, with primary emphasis on developing the proficiency of the individual.

7. "That specialized courses, such as public speaking, debating, interpretative reading, etc., should be given only when they may be given *in addition* to such a fundamental course."[13]

8. That in making speech available for all students or required of all students, care should be taken to avoid classes that are so large as to prevent any adequate opportunity for individual practice. The enrollment of an ordinary speech class should rarely exceed twenty-five.

9. That the speech program in teacher-training institutions, by emphasis on such matters as voice training and phonetics, should give greater attention to the needs of those preparing to teach in the elementary grades.

10. That in the preparation of specialized speech teachers, provision should increasingly be made for the training of those who are qualified to teach speech and direct speech activities in the elementary grades.

11. That an increased amount of corrective speech work should be offered by teacher-training institutions; where feasible, to improve the speech of those of their own students who have defects, but particularly to train teachers who can intelligently treat at least the simpler speech defects of school children.

12. That two questions not investigated by this committee should be given attention and investigation: (1) What should be the content and organization of specific courses as adapted to the

needs of prospective teachers? (2) In terms of courses, activities, and personal skill, what should constitute the training and equipment of the specialized speech teacher in high school and grades? To these two matters of standardization the best thought of speech teachers, not only in teacher-training institutions, but in colleges, universities, and public schools should be directed.[4]

13. That the National Association of Teachers of Speech should finance means of securing publicity for this report, especially that it may reach the teachers responsible for speech, the chairman of the course of study committee, and the president of every teachers college and normal school in the country; the head of every university school of education and college department of education; and every state superintendent of public instruction.

Findings

For purposes of comparative tabulation, the country has been divided into four districts, including, respectively, the states indicated. Five states not listed do not have special teacher-training institutions.

West—Washington, Oregon, Idaho, Montana, California, Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado—Total 8.

Middle West—North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio—Total 12.

South—Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, West Virginia, Virginia, Maryland—Total 14.

East—New Jersey, Pennsylvania, New York, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut—Total 9. (Data for Pennsylvania and New Hampshire are lacking because report and questionnaires were lost in the mails on their way from the committee member to the committee chairman.)

[4] In connection with training essentials for the prospective speech teacher, attention is called to two unpublished master of arts theses in the University of Iowa library:

"A Minimum Speech Training for Teacher-Training Institutions" by May Lamb Ramsey, 1929.

"The Training of the High School Teacher of Speech" by Paul Jones Harkness, 1929.

I. General Data

	West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Institutions circularized	24	55	54	48	181
Institutions answering (questionnaire or catalog or both)	20	49	44	40	153
Institutions returning questionnaires	15	42	33	35	125
Institutions offering four-year course and granting degree	15	44	36	9	104

Of the institutions circularized 84.5% answered by questionnaire or catalog or both; 69.6% returned questionnaires.

The rapid transformation of normal schools into teachers colleges is strikingly brought out by the last set of figures, which shows that of the institutions answering 68.6% are four-year teachers colleges. The percentage would be higher if it were not for the large number of normal schools in the east.

It is also significant that no committee member reported any institutions in which the academic training of speech teachers is noticeably below that of instructors in other departments.

II. Department Organization

	West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Institutions offering speech in a separate department	3	15	13	7	38
Institutions offering speech in another department	17	31	22	21	91
Institutions offering no speech	0	3	9	12	24

The number of separate departments in the East would be increased from 7 to 21 if Pennsylvania returns were included, as all of the state teacher-training institutions of that state have recently made speech a separate department. Inclusion of these figures means that 40% of the institutions offering speech work have a separate department, an increase over the 1922 figures.

III. Title of Department When Separate

	West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Speech	1	10	3	5	19
Expression			4	1	5
Public Speaking			2		2
Reading			1	1	2

One case each of the following: Reading and Public Speaking, Speech and Reading, Speech Education, Speech Arts, Speech and Dramatic Arts, Public Speaking and Dramatics, Vocal Expression, Oral Expression, Expressive Reading, Oratory.

Noteworthy progress in standardization is shown here. Out of 38 departments 19, or exactly 50%, bear the title of *Speech*, and 4 others use that term in combination. In 1922 there was only one case in which *Speech* was the department title.

IV. Number and Training of Instructors

	West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Institutions with one full-time speech teacher	11	11	12	11	45
Institutions with two full-time speech teachers	1	6	4	3	14
Institutions with three full-time speech teachers	1	1	1	1	4
Institutions with four full-time speech teachers	1	2	0	0	3
Institutions with five or more full-time speech teachers	0	2	0	0	2
Total number of institutions with full-time speech teachers					68
Institutions with only part-time speech teachers	6	24	18	13	61
Institutions offering no courses	0	3	9	12	24
Full-time teachers reported	14	45	21	20	105
Part-time teachers reported	19	58	22	26	127

Training of Instructors

	West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Bachelor's Degree	10	9	11	18	48
Master's Degree	12	30	10	15	67
Doctor's Degree	4	2	1	3	10
Work in special school only	0	0	1	3	4
Work in normal school only	1	0	0	0	1
No degree—no other information	0	1	8	6	15

This information as to academic training was, of necessity, gained from catalogs and is far from complete. Definite gains, as compared with 1922, are evident here, especially in the percentage of graduate degrees and in the reduction of the number of those who have had training only at special schools. At that time, out of 99 instructors reporting, only 18 had master's and doctor's degrees and 28 had had work only at special schools.

V. Number of Courses Offered

	West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Institutions offering only one course	0	3	4	11	18
Institutions offering 2-5 courses	11	21	17	14	63

Institutions offering 6-10 courses	6	14	6	2	28
Institutions offering more than 10 courses	3	8	8	1	20
Total number of institutions offering courses in speech					129
Institutions offering no courses	0	3	9	12	24
Average number of courses	5	6	5	2	4.5

It is startling to discover that one in six of the teacher-training institutions investigated offers no regular class work in speech. It is to be noted that the South and the East make the poorest showing in this regard.

As nearly as can be learned from answers to questionnaires, in all probability a considerable number of those schools reporting no speech classes do give some attention to the oral phases of English composition in the English course; the number so replying would indicate that some schools stress oral English in addition to offering regular speech work.

VI. Required Courses and Prerequisites

	West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Institutions requiring at least one course for all students	7	14	6	19	46
Institutions requiring at least one course for students in specified departments	9	22	13	23	67
Institutions where all work is elective	7	20	5	1	33
Institutions following a general system of prerequisites for advanced courses	10	24	12	7	53

35.7% of the institutions offering speech require at least one course for all students. In only 25.6% of the institutions is all speech work elective; in 1922 the corresponding figure was 30.9%.

Attention is called to the high rank of the East in the matter of required work. Judging from the answer to other questions, such as those dealing with speech correction, phonetics, and names of texts and courses, it would appear that more attention is given in that section to the training of the elementary-school teacher in voice, diction, and phonetics than is the case elsewhere.

The figures as to the provision for prerequisites in advanced courses are particularly encouraging, especially when taken in conjunction with the figures given later as to the number of institutions offering a general foundation course prerequisite to other courses.

VII. MAJORS AND MINORS

	West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Institutions offering a major in speech	4	9	5	1	19
Institutions offering a minor in speech	7	10	8	0	25

It is, of course, in the colleges offering majors and minors that the greatest variety of courses is found.

VIII. THE FOUNDATION COURSE

	West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Institutions offering one general foundation course prerequisite to other courses	12	25	20	13	70
Institutions offering more than one general foundation course	3	3	5	5	16
Institutions where course is completely academic ("training aims solely at the personal development of the individual")	2	3	5	0	10
Institutions where course is largely academic	6	12	12	6	36
Institutions where course is largely professional ("training emphasizes what student may do as a teacher in improving speech habits")	0	3	0	0	3
Institutions where emphasis is balanced	5	9	5	5	24
Institutions checking more than one item					3
Institutions where course is open to freshmen	14	21	16	2	53
Institutions where course is closed to freshmen	0	3	3	0	6
Institutions where course is limited to freshmen	0	3	3	11	17
Duplications (1 and 3)					6
Institutions grouping students in class sections on the basis of ability and previous experience					
Good and poor together	13	23	14	12	62
Good and poor separated	0	1	6	1	8

Particular attention was given to the beginning course inasmuch as it gives a rather definite clue to the whole speech attitude and approach in an institution. Of the 129 institutions offering work in speech 70, or 54.3%, make a general foundation course

prerequisite to other courses; in 1922 only 3 out of 110 institutions had such a provision.

Despite the definitions of terms given in the questionnaire it is likely that there is considerable inaccuracy in the answer as to academic and professional emphasis. The extremely small number of "largely academic" answers is worthy of note.

IX. Class Management

In answer to the question "In a given course required of students in more than one department, do you have a special section for each group?" only five institutions replied affirmatively, thus further indicating that a high degree of professionalization does not exist.

Institutions are about evenly divided in whether or not they limit enrollment in speech classes. Some set a limit for certain courses and not for others.

The average speech class the country over contains somewhat less than twenty-five members, although in foundation and interpretation courses in the cast, without enrollment limits, the figure goes considerably higher.

Although there is considerable variation, the average speech course yields between three and four *term* hours of academic credit. The usual term is twelve weeks in length.

X. Methods Courses

	West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Institutions offering practice teaching for students preparing to teach speech	3	14	4	2	23
Institutions offering methods course(s) in speech	3	8	5	4	20
Institutions offering both	3	7	4	1	15

XI. Speech Tests

	West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Institutions using oral tests to determine whether students may matriculate	2	2	0	3	7
Institution using oral tests to direct students into corrective work	5	4	2	3	14

The use of tests to determine whether students entering a teacher-training institution have irremediable speech defects and so should be barred from entering the teaching profession is a new development but is being hopefully experimented with in a number of places.

XII. Speech Correction

	West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Institutions aiming to correct students' own defects	9	20	4	20	53
Institutions treating defects of training-school children	5	9	1	7	22
Institutions training corrective teachers	4	10	3	6	23
Institutions with clinical laboratory	2	5	1	1	9

The gratifying figures for the first item are seriously offset by those for the last; the speech correction program needs improvement in scientific quality.

XIII. Phonetics

	West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Institutions offering work in phonetics	7	13	4	11	35
Institutions requiring work in phonetics	1	3	3	9	16
Institutions emphasizing corrective aspect	4	6	3	7	20
Institutions emphasizing diction aspect	4	12	3	12	31
Institutions emphasizing theory	4	3	0	4	11

The questionnaire was at fault in asking for "work" instead of "courses." In comparing item one here with titles of possible courses in phonetics, it is evident that much of the work reported here is incidental in other courses; a not inconsiderable part of it is probably *phonics*, a particular application of phonetics to methods in reading.

XIV. Limitations and Difficulties

	West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Institutions checking crowded curriculum	9	25	10	14	58
Institutions checking inadequate staff	10	23	8	11	52
Institutions checking too heavy teaching load	5	18	11	17	51
Institutions checking equipment	11	18	9	11	49
Institutions checking extra-curricular pressure on instructor	6	26	8	9	49
Institutions checking extra-curricular pressure on students	6	22	8	10	46
Institutions checking outside employment pressure on students	5	19	7	6	37
Institutions checking insufficient budget	7	19	7	4	37
Institutions checking inter-department co-operation	4	5	5	2	16
Institutions checking lack of assistance from national speech organization	7	7	2	0	16
Institutions checking state course of study	0	5	6	4	15

prerequisite to other courses; in 1922 only 3 out of 110 institutions had such a provision.

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Institutions offering both	3	7	4	1	15

XI. Speech Tests

	West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Institutions using oral tests to determine whether students may matriculate	2	2	0	3	7
Institution using oral tests to direct students into corrective work	5	4	2	3	14

The use of tests to determine whether students entering a teacher-training institution have irremediable speech defects and so should be barred from entering the teaching profession is a new development but is being hopefully experimented with in a number of places.

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Institutions emphasizing diction aspect	4	12	3	12	31
Institutions emphasizing theory	4	3	0	4	11

The questionnaire was at fault in asking for "work" instead of "courses." In comparing item one here with titles of possible courses in phonetics, it is evident that much of the work reported here is incidental in other courses; a not inconsiderable part of it is probably *phonics*, a particular application of phonetics to methods in reading.

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Institutions checking too heavy teaching load	5	18	11	17	51
Institutions checking equipment	11	18	9	11	49
Institutions checking extra-curricular pressure on instructor	6	26	8	9	49
Institutions checking extra-curricular pressure on students	6	22	8	10	46
Institutions checking outside employment pressure on students	5	19	7	6	37
Institutions checking insufficient budget	7	19	7	4	37
Institutions checking inter-department co-operation	4	5	5	2	16
Institutions checking lack of assistance from national speech organization	7	7	2	0	16
Institutions checking state course of study	0	5	6	4	15

XV. Suggestions for Improvement of the Speech Program in Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools

	Number answering
Separate speech department	11
Better-trained teachers	10
Campaign to educate administrators to the need and value of an adequate speech program	8
Standardization and uniformity of courses and nomenclature	8
More time for speech training	7
Smaller classes	7
Full-time teachers	6
More emphasis on the personality and mental hygiene approach, with corresponding training on the part of the instructor	4
More work in correction of speech defects, among both college and training-school students (although it is recognized that the teacher training institution is not the place to prepare advanced specialists)	4
Coordination and cooperation of speech training with every other department in school	4
Need of "selling" speech education in general—students, faculty, public	4
Academic recognition, including proper credit for speech courses	3
More attention to speech training for the elementary grades	3
Speech fundamentals should be required of every student	3
Fundamentals course should be prerequisite to other courses	3
Improvement of the speech program in secondary schools: required work, approved sequence of courses to facilitate granting of college credit	3
More attention to the speech training given children with both normal and defective speech in the training school	3
Opportunity to offer advanced courses in speech	3
Need of courses for release of the speaking voice and for freeing and coordinating of the body	2
Need for emphasis on educational dramatics, for the average individual of no special talent who needs physical and emotional release; imaginative understanding, and self-expression	2
Better coöperation among normal school speech teachers	2
Requirement of personal proficiency in the fields in which the instructor is teaching or the student plans to teach	2
Need of literary background and appreciation on the part of those who wish to teach interpretation	2
More sympathetic understanding on the part of other departments	2

Need of heads of English departments who appreciate the great value of speech as an integrated part of a comprehensive English program	1

Dozens of other suggestions, each sent in by only one person, might be listed. The last suggestion above, although offered by only one person, is presented as an interesting contribution.

XVI. Extra-Curricular Activities Intercollegiate

	Debate	*Dramatics*
Institutions with activity under speech direction	47	73
Institutions with activity not under speech direction	29	30
Institutions not engaging in activity	8	6
Institutions not reporting	41	16
Number of debates or plays on average program	8	6 long plays
Average number participating yearly	12	75
Average annual budget or net income	$450	$415
Institutions supporting activity by student fees	25	15
Institutions supporting activity by admission charge	4	45
Institutions supporting activity by school subsidy	7	8
Institutions supporting activity by combination of methods	6	19

Answers as to size of program and annual budget were highly fragmentary and unsatisfactory; the figures given are based upon a relatively small number of institutions.

XVII. Departments Offering Methods in the Teaching of Reading

	West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Institutions offering in speech department	1	7	5	3	16
Institutions offering in English department	6	18	15	11	50
Institutions offering in aducation department	6	6	5	10	27
Institutions where speech faculty cooperates with others in teaching reading	0	7	0	10	17

XVIII. Departments Offering Story-Telling

	West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Institutions offering in speech department	0	7	4	7	18
Institutions offering in English department	9	19	14	16	58
Institutions offering in education department	5	2	4	3	14
Institutions where speech faculty coöperates with others in teaching story-telling	2	0	0	3	5

Inasmuch as a large number of English instructors teach speech, (See XX), the large figure for the English department does

not mean that the handling of story-telling is in all cases out of the hands of speech teachers.

XIX. Texts Used in the Foundation Course

This information was assembled because a rather accurate clue to the whole speech approach is furnished by the text used in the beginning course.

Author	*Title*	*Number of Cases*				
		West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Woolbert	Fundamentals of Speech	6	7	6	1	20
O'Neill & Weaver	Elements of Speech	1	4	1	0	6
Woolbert & Weaver	Better Speech	1	1	1	2	5
Avery, Dorsey, & Sickles	First Principles of Speech Training	0	2	0	2	4
Craig	The Speech Arts	0	2	1	0	3
Emerson	Evolution of Expression	0	1	2	0	3
Pelsma	Essentials of Speech	0	2	1	0	3
Curry	Lessons for vocal Expression	0	0	2	0	2
Sandford & Yeager	Principles of Effective Speaking	0	0	2	0	2
Peppard	Correction of Speech Defects	0	0	0	2	2

One institution each for the following texts, grouped according to emphasis: public speaking, interpretation, diction and phonetics, miscellaneous.

Author	*Title*	*Number of Cases*				
		West	*M. W.*	*So.*	*East*	*Total*
Brigance	The Spoken Word			1		
Phillips	Effective Speaking			1		
Brees & Kelley	Modern Speaking			1		
Hollister	Speech Making		1			
Immel	The Making of a Speech		1			
Winans	Public Speaking	1				
Drummond & Hunt	Persistent Questions in Public Discussion	1				
Curry	Mind and Voice			1		
	Leland Powers Practice Book				1	
Woolbert & Nelson	The Art of Interpretative Speech				1	

Author	Title	Number of Cases				
		West	M. W.	So.	East	Total
Bassett	A Handbook of Oral Reading	1				
Phillips	Natural Drills in Expression				1	
Cumnock	Choice Readings		1			
Shurter & Watkins	Poems for Oral Interpretation		1			
Fulton & Trueblood	Practical Elocution		1			
McLean	Good American Speech				1	
Birmingham & Krapp	First Steps in Speech Improvement				1	
Barrows & Cordts	Teacher's Book of Phonetics				1	
Ripman	English Sounds			1		
Boice	Enunciation and Articulation				1	
Patterson	How to Speak				1	
Gilson	Speaking of English		1			
Rogers	English Diction				1	
Turner	Teaching to Read				1	
Lutz	Technique of Pantomime	1				
Bosworth	Technique in Dramatic Art	1				
Card & Wines	Come to Order	1				
Blanton	Speech Training for Childen				1	
No text		1	3	7	4	15
Institutions using several unspecified texts or not answering						5

XX. Other Subjects Combined With Speech In Case of Part-Time Teachers

English composition and literature	52
Social sciences	8
Methods in reading	3
Critic work	3
Physical education	2
Education and psychology	2
Natural sciences	2
Foreign languages	2
Journalism and school publications	2
Library Practice	1
Dean	1

Registrar and secretary	1
Part-time teachers not reporting	48

XXI. NAME OF DEPARTMENT IN WHICH SPEECH IS OFFERED WHEN NOT IN A SEPARATE DEPARTMENT

English	75
Theory or Education	3
Reading	3
General—no title	1
Institutions not reporting	9

XXII. NOMENCLATURE OF COURSES

Courses have been placed under the respective headings by the representatives of the individual schools who filled out questionnaires.

GENERAL FOUNDATION COURSES

NOTE: Courses in column one apparently emphasize the general or the public speaking approach, those in column two the interpretative approach.

Fundamentals of speech	20	Oral expression	9
Public speaking	7	Oral reading	8
Public speaking 1	2	Reading and speech	6
Fundamentals of expression	2	Oral English	3
Fundamentals	1	Spoken English	3
Principles of speech	1	Voice and diction	3
Essentials of speech	1	Speech improvement	2
Essentials of public speaking	1	Expression	2
Speech fundamentals	1	Oral interpretation	2
Orientation in Speech	1	Fundamentals of Oral interpretation	1
Public speaking 1A	1	Fundamentals of Interpretative reading	1
Public speaking 1B	1	Vocal expression and pantomime	1
Speech 1	1	Speaking voice	1
Extempore speaking	1	Voice and body	1
Public speaking for men in physical education	1	Expressive reading	1
Public speaking for women in physical education	1	Elementary phonetics and pronunciation	1
		Speech training	1
		Speech education	1
		Dramatic art	1
		Stage craft	1
		Play production	1
		History and development of the stage	1

Although there is unwarranted diversity of nomenclature here, a not inconsiderable part of it is due to the widely varying emphasis in content and approach. Commendable progress in standardization of both emphasis and nomenclature has been made since the survey of 1922. At that time out of 91 cases "Fundamentals of Speech" or its equivalent appeared only once. It is now used in 24 out of 94 cases.

PUBLIC SPEAKING COURSES

Public speaking	43	Practical speaking	1
Advanced public speaking	13	Elements of speaking	1
Extempore speaking	9	Informal public speaking	1
Extemporaneous speaking 1	4	Public speech	1
Public address	3	Fundamentals	1
Beginning speech	3	Speechmaking	1
Speech composition	3	Oral composition	1
Expression	3	Spoken English	1
Oratory	3	Voice and diction	1
Elementary public speaking	2	Public address and parliamentary practice	1
Oral English	2	Occasional address	1
Public speaking 2	2	Oratory	1
Extempore speaking 1	2	Personality training	1
Extempore speaking 2	2	Open forum	1
Extemporaneous speaking 2	1	Forum discussion	1
Extempore speech	1		
Advanced speech	1		

ARGUMENTATION COURSES

Argumentation	17	Debating 1	1
Argumentation and debate	16	Debating 2	1
Debate	12	Debate, elementary	1
Debating	6	Extempore speaking 3	1
Advanced debate	5	Seminar in debate	1
Argumentation and debating	3	Practice and contest debating	1
Advanced argumentation and debating	3	Intercollegiate debate	2
Advanced argumentation	1	Intercollegiate debating	1
Oral composition and debate	1	Debate squad	1
Public speaking and debate	1	Principles and coaching of debate	1
		Theory of debating	1

INTERPRETATION COURSES

Interpretation	6	Dramatic reading	1
Literary interpretation	6	Voice and diction	1
Interpretative reading	6	Characterization	1
Advanced interpretation	6	Characterization and pantomime	1
Oral English	4	Bodily expression and gesture	1

Oral expression	4	Advanced interpretative reading	1
Oral interpretation	3	Fundamentals of interpretative reading 2	1
Oral interpretation of literature	3	Interpretation of poetry	1
Literary appreciation	3	Expression 2	1
Dramatic interpretation	2	Readings in Victorian poetry	1
Reading	2	Shakespeare	1
Advanced oral expression	2	Platform reading	1
Shakespearean reading	2	Recital reading	1
Oral reading	2	Professional interpretation	1
Literary interpretation 1	2	Critical readings	1
Literary interpretation 2	1	Pedagogy of interpretation	1
Literary interpretation 3	1	College theatre	1
Expressive reading	1	Carolina folk plays	1
Fundamentals of expression	1	Children's literature and story-telling	1
Elementary interpretation	1	Art of story-telling	1
Oral interpretation of the drama	1	Story telling	4
Interpretation of the printed page	1		

DRAMATICS COURSES

Play production	31	Children's plays	1
Stage craft	10	Children's theatre	1
Dramatic production	8	Dramatics in the elementary school	1
Dramatics	7	Story telling	1
Dramatic art	4	Advanced drama	1
Dramatic interpretation	4	Interpretation of the drama	1
Advanced dramatics	4	Stage art	1
Educational dramatics	4	Choosing the school play	1
Elementary dramatics	3	Pageantry and play production	1
Creative dramatics	3	Festival and pageantry	1
Drama	3	Pageantry	1
Dramatic production 1	2	Puppetry	1
Dramatic production 2	2	Community drama	1
Modern drama	2	Development of the drama	1
Dramatic technique	2	Seminary in dramatics	1
Classroom dramatization	2	Play construction	1
Advanced play production	2	Theory of acting	1
Play production 2	2	Direction and rehearsal	1
Play production 3	1	Scenic design	1
Dramatic reading	1	Play coaching	3
Dramatization	1	Principles and coaching of dramatics	1
Speech and drama	1	Play writing	1
Beginning dramatics	1	Theatre backgrounds	1
College theatre	1	History and development of the stage	1
Dramatic workshop	1		
Dramatic club	1		

VOICE TRAINING

Voice training	2	Phonetics	1
Expression 1	2	Voice and diction	1
Elementary phonetics	2	Technique of speech	1
Advanced phonetics	2	Phonetic defects of speech	1
Elementary voice	2	Speech training	1
Vocal technique	1	The speaking voice	1

SPEECH CORRECTION

Speech correction	2	Phonetic defects of speech	1
Speech defects and disorders	2	Speech training	1
Corrective speech	2	Oral English	1
Speech correction 1	1	Voice science	1
Speech correction 2	1		
Correction of speech	1		

In addition to the courses above, there is a small number of miscellaneous specialized courses such as Theory of Speech, Parliamentary Procedure, and Methods of Teaching Speech.

SUGGESTIVE NOMENCLATURE FOR THE BEGINNING COURSES IN EACH GROUP

GENERAL FOUNDATION COURSES

1. When the course includes the principles and practice of both public speaking and interpretation:
   Fundamentals of Speech, Essentials of Speech.
2. When the course is devoted to public speaking:
   Public Speaking, Public Speaking 1.
3. When the course is devoted to interpretation:
   Interpretative Reading, Oral Interpretation.

PUBLIC SPEAKING COURSES

Public Speaking, Public Speaking 1, Extempore Speaking, Informal Public Speaking.

ARGUMENTATION COURSES

Argumentation, Argumentation 1, Argumentation and Debate.

INTERPRETATION COURSES

Interpretative Reading, Interpretative Reading 1, Oral Interpretation.

DRAMATICS COURSES

Play Production, Play Production 1, Dramatic Production, Dramatic Production 1.

SPEECH CORRECTION COURSES

Speech Correction, Speech Correction 1.

VOICE TRAINING COURSES

Voice Training.

PUBLIC SPEAKING IN A NEW ERA*

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EVEN a brief association with the Department of Public Speaking in the University of California brings one into contact with intimations that in recent years the field embraced by the so-called Speech Arts has undergone some important changes. One may not become fully or even explicitly informed as to the character of those changes, but some conviction that they have taken place is inescapable.

What, specifically, are some of the overt hints that thus help establish and sustain this conviction? First, there is the fact that many professors of Public Speaking profess contempt for the word "elocution." This term, once respectable in studio, academy, and university alike, they declare, is now in use only in the backwoods colleges of this progressive commonwealth. To be sure, it is a very fine word, a better has not been found to take its place, but its connotations rob it of all good repute.

Second, professors of Public Speaking appear to be unanimous in urging that the proper mode for speakers in our day is the conversational as against the elocutionary or the formally oratorical style. Wendell Phillips, they point out, started this new trend. The trend may possibly have reached a point of unhappily extreme simplicity, nevertheless to view public speaking as "expanded conversation" is quite properly the vogue.

And third, departments of Public Speaking in American institutions of learning have manifested a desire to be rechristened. Good old tradition brought us such designations as "Department of Oratory" or "Department of Elocution." But once the character of the older elocutionary artificialties was fully sensed leaders in the field began to petition for new names, and "Department of Public Speaking" and "Division of Oral English" came into general favor as a consequence. Presently, however, a new epidemic of re-naming has appeared giving the impression that the institutions which adopt the title "Department of Speech" are exhibiting an unusual degree of sound sophistication.

These are the most obvious of the symptoms of change. These

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are the smoke—to speak in terms of the old adage—beneath which there is certain to be found true fire. And our question is: What and where is the fire? In other words, Is the field of Public Speaking in a new era?

The field *is* in a new era. It is in a new era because of our better understanding of the whole subject of speech and its place in human life, and because of the changed attitude teachers of Public Speaking are taking as a result of that improved understanding. And it is the purpose of this discussion to offer at least a glance at the main items in the new understanding and the new attitudes.

Students of the subject see clearly today that speech is essentially a much more vital factor in human life than has been implied in the usual definitions of it. In the most outstanding of recent studies in the field, Mrs. De Laguna's *Speech, its Function and Development,* the author goes to some pains to make clear that our conventional definition of speech as "oral communication" is inadequate—inadequate because of the over-intellectualization of the situation in which speech appears. "What we are trying to get away from," says Mrs. De Laguna, "is the idea that speech is only an external physical manifestation of inner psychical processes." Speech hasn't primarily to do with the urge to express something any more than fighting has primarily to do with the desire to inflict a blow. The fallacy lies in the abastracting of the process from its context of purposeful activity and then proceeding with the definition.

As a corrective for this fallacy of abstraction one might do what the pragmatists have urged should be done with logic: bring the matter to the attention of a biologist or a sociologist and ask him what the process means in terms which signifiy something only in relation to the elemental business of living. This gives both logic and speech their perspectives of active life of which they are easily robbed.

As an example of what happens to our perspective with regard to speech let us consider the process of naming. When the anthropological Adam, our primitive ancester, first called an apple "food" and some other fruit "poison" he used spoken language as a means of relating people more successfully to the world of things about them. Speaking was to him an integral part of the multifarious business of living, not a phenomenon which is exhausted in

the definition of it as "oral communication." Or, let us think of speech as it arises in the course of a project of action such as common people engage in daily. When during the construction of a building a mason asks a fellow-worker for another hodful of brick he is engaging in "oral communication," to be sure; but he is doing much more than that; he is building a house, and his little speech is an integral part of that process. Only a dictionary-maker or a teacher would think of abstracting the speech from its context of purpose and action and referring to it in the resultant isolation.

And now that I have mentioned teachers I might go on and admit that to isolate processes from their basis in larger experience is for many purposes a necessary and valuable procedure. But it may breed attitudes and points of view which lead away from reality, and if from reality then also from truth. John Dewey in one of his historical treatments of epistemology brings out an interpretation which purports to show that this has occurred in the realm of philosophy and that at such times the very formulation of the problem of knowledge was precipitated into essentially insoluble forms. Such a condition has obtained in the field of Public Speaking more than once. We have been moving away from it in the last three decades. We are now trying to bring to bear upon our theories, our aims, and our methods the full force of the view that speech is an essential activity of human life which fulfills an indispensable function in the real business of living and without which there could be no cooperation, no division of labor, no governmental institutions, no social codes, no civilization.

But this new appreciation of speech tends to go even deeper than that. We recall that the ancient Greeks worried a great deal about the relation of words, thought, and reality. We remember, too, how Oliver Wendell Holmes paused over the observation that we employ speech in shaping our ideas. And we are aware, doubtless, of the growing tendency on the part of modern logicians to give the subject of speech greater attention in their studies of reasoning. But we may need to be made more fully aware of the significance of recent efforts to show that thought and speech are identical in nature. It appears at this moment that the theory will not stand without radical reinterpretation. One consequence of the whole controversy concerning it is, however, most certain to abide, and that is the conviction that intelligence and speech must be

thought of together. To condition one is to condition the other. To corrupt one is to corrupt the other. Thus speech is more than an essential factor in the practical business of living, it is an essential factor in the business of thought.

The second item in this rediscovery of speech is the observation that speaking involves the whole speaker. This thought appears to be far from new. We have known for centuries that "every little movement has a meaning all its own," that posture and gesture and tone of voice may say more than words. We have known, too, the need of sometimes "reading between the lines." We have known, in other words, of the accessory modes of expression. But we have not, until the last two decades, realized how completely speech mirrors and "spells out" a personality. And we haven't known this because we haven't known personality. Today the concept of adjustment throws a flood of light on the baffling mental impediments of speech over which some pious men have prayed. Good speaking often reduces itself to good mental hygiene; its opposite may also have its counterpart in the personality.

The third item in this new view of our subject is in part a corollary of the first. If speech is more than making speeches and more than conversation then it follows that our field embraces more than the so-called Speech Arts. This is analogous to saying that if religion is more than ceremonials the study of religion must embrace more than ritual. If speech is a factor in biological and social adjustment, if it is an integral part of the process of thinking, if it is an indispensable instrument in all cooperative effort, and if it is an index of the normality of personal development, then speech is not just getting up before audiences, or expressing oneself in conferences or around the dinner table or even at the hearth fire; it is an aspect of mental and general behavior for which the term Public Speaking is inappropriate. Our subject is speech, not public speaking, and our field is Speech, not the Speech Arts.

Finally, speech is seen today as serving new significant ends. Speech has always been the most important instrument in social purpose. Among the ancient Hebrews two problems confronted the race: the first, how to weld the tribes with traditions of nomadic unrestraint into a unity with a consistent culture, and the second how to dissolve the sharp contrast between the ideals of the priest

and the ideals of the prophet. And speech was the main tool used to subserve these ends.

Among the ancient Greeks two problems, again, troubled the mind, one, how to develop a satisfactory world view out of a mass of conflicting philosophies, and the other how to deal with the difficulties of a primitive democracy. The results of the first were the Dialectic of Socrates, the System of Plato, and the Logic of Aristotle. The results of the second were the political standards and the oratory and Rhetoric developed through public leadership.

Are there analogously significant ends which speech is asked to subserve today? There are. One of the most important developments in the history of democracy is the method of creative controversy which has been born of our industrial conflicts. Oh, yes, people had met over conference tables before our era—but not in order to evolve formulae that might solve a problem by satisfying the living interests of both sides. The "creative conference" which evolves solutions not by listening to the speeches of select superiors but by critically examining and re-moulding various proposals has already commanded the interest of the academic mind, as a recent thesis for the doctorate in social science shows, and as is witnessed by the re-writing of Speech texts so as to include chapters on the technique of discussion.

Again, this is an era of transition. There are literally dozens of points of view in religion, in philosophy, in sociology, in literary criticism, in education, in the arts—a bewildering variety of choices which enriches yet confuses mankind. Will criticism sift out of all this such elements as can be used in a new synthesis of illuminating guidance for the future? If this ever comes to pass speech will have been there, the chief instrument in the process.

Admittedly the great problem of the present and the future is the problem of the races and nations. Whether it be fear of the policies of governments such as rule in Italy and Russia, or whether it be anxiety over the conflicts of trade competition; whether it be dread of the law of Malthus or concern over the juxtaposition of races, all these situations tend to make grave the heart even of unprecendentedly prosperous America. What the world must develop is new refinements in the technique of its group relations, refinements that will save the intercourse of nation with nation from the primitive law of brute survival. In the search for these refine-

ments we will waste a great deal of time in talk, in discussion and in debate. But talk and discussion and debate will still be playing the effective rôle in that enterprise when men have been far on the road toward the goal of their quest.

These then are the items in the re-discovery of Speech. What, now, are the new attitudes which teachers of Speech are taking in consequence of this better understanding of their subject?

If speech is an important factor in the vital business of living two things naturally follow: we must regard its field as being more than just the Speech Arts and we must teach it not as in isolation from the affairs of life but as a part of those affairs. And we are doing just that. We are carrying speech training into the public school, into the home, into the clinic, into the nursery. We are thinking of speech less in terms of its graces and more in terms of its functional efficiency. We are substituting the imagery of problem-solving discussion for the imagery of pleasant conversation in the salon. We are doing all we can to avert the older dangers of speech training leading to affectation and artificiality. To be sure we are not ignoring the recognized values of true oratory, of learned conversation, of distinguished speaking or of the fine Speech Arts. But we are conceiving all of these and we are trying to teach all of these in a way which puts the premium on essential genuineness; and this the older elocutionary methods could not do.

And just as in our teaching we are trying to keep speech close to the affairs of life so in the same teaching we are trying to keep it close to the affairs of thought. It has been one of the particular aims of the Department of Public Speaking in the University of California to condition the student's thinking ability and his culture at the same time that it has striven to condition his speaking facility. It has often seemed that this emphasis on mind has taken us too far from the real task of speech training. A critical examination of our work might conceivably prove this to be the case. But it is a singular fact that in all our classes our attention is inevitably drawn with equal frequency to the deficiencies of intellect and to the deficiencies of voice and word. And this fact makes it quite undesirable that we should ever go very far back in the direction of teaching form alone. Tradition had us teach better speaking but present standards require us to teach better and more thoughtful speaking.

The discovery that speaking involves the whole personality is not strictly speaking a discovery. It is one of those well-known truths which modern psychology has helped to corroborate and for which it has furnished more specific categories. But it is precisely because of this service of psychology that the old truth is helping us more than it did in the past. We know now in terms freshly illuminating that the personality is a unity. The problem of good speaking may in many instances be one of a specific technique, but it is most often found to be the general one of better personal adjustment to the social world. And the teacher of Speech cannot afford to be merely the pedagogue of an art, he has to become in turn the physician, the analyst, and the preacher.

I have already alluded above to the fact that speech forms are even now evolving to meet the new situations in which speech is called upon to render important social service. The technique of "Cooperative Controversy" is one of these forms. New texts in Speech are bringing forth expositions of the process. Socially minded organizations are attempting to adapt it to their search for new social and religious formulae. Groups are being organized in all cities with the object of securing the fruits of the method in the examination of the questions of the day. The development of interest in the technique has been in a large measure responsible for recent criticisms of the traditional college debate. As a result of this and other influences the college debate is at the cross-roads. It is trying to turn many ways at once. In some institutions it remains a college sport, in others it imitates the recreational enterprise of the century-old Oxford Union, and in others still it is tending to become a form of enlightening discussion. Teachers of Speech are watching this condition with acute interest. They are here as elsewhere socially minded. These two situations illustrate how they are striving to create newer techniques and ideals in order that speech may become a better social tool. It is indeed a far cry from their erstwhile preoccupation with—elocution!

And last, and probably the very opposite of least, the re-discovery of Speech has widened our field as a field for research. So long as Speech education implied training in the Speech Arts the attitude prevailed that it just barely preempted a field in its own right. It was observed that it borrowed from physics and physiology, that it employed psychology and literature and that it

rested on the principles of logic and rhetoric. And the teacher naturally felt that the satisfactions of important achievements in research could never be fully his. The situation has changed. The last decade and a half have marked the decided expansion of the area in which the scholar in the Department of Speech can find problems that are distinctly his own. The establishment in this country of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION, the steady increase in the number of Speech teachers with the Ph. D. degree, and the growth of the number of universities which offer graduate courses and higher degrees in the subject all attest the fact that this field has attained the position of a well rounded academic interest, and that ahead of us lie greater and greater opportunities for such achievements as it must be the pride of academic departments to attain.

OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING DRAMA

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"THE acting of comedies must not be forbidden to boys at school but allowed and encouraged; first because it is good exercise for them in the Latin language, and secondly, because in comedies which are artistically constructed, written and represented—every individual will be reminded of the duties of his office and station, and of what is becoming to a servant, a gentleman, for young fellows and for old, and what they all ought to do. In these plays we find described the cunning tricks and frauds of bad people; the duties of parents and children; how children and young people are to be attracted to matrimony when they are of suitable age, and kept faithful to it; how children are to be obedient to parents and carry on courtship."[1]

So replied Martin Luther to Dr. Cellarius in the early part of the Sixteenth Century when the latter had asked Luther's opinion about the use of school plays at Dresden. A century later Francis Bacon declared,

"In modern states playacting is esteemed but a toy, except when it is too satirical and biting, but among the ancients it

[1] Quoted by JAMES L. MCCONAUGHY in *The School Drama*, Columbia University Contribution to Education No. 57, 1913. pp. 56-57.

> was used as a means of educating men's minds to virtue. It is a thing indeed, if practiced professionally, of low repute; but if it is made a part of discipline, it is of excellent use. I mean stage playing, an art which strengthens the memory, regulates the tone of voice and pronunciation, teaches a decent carriage of countenance and gesture, gives not a little assurance, and accustoms young men to bear being looked at."[2]

About the same time a German writer enumerated the aims of the Schuldramas thus:

> "To gain mastery of the Latin language. To develop pupils' oratorical powers. Vividly to picture moral truths. To interest pupils, parents and townspeople. To help pay the teachers' salaries. To develop a knowledge and love of the dramatic arts."[3]

Evidently what we hope to accomplish in our drama work has not greatly changed in the last five hundred years. In fact, these old aims carry a modern flavor. But what do we who are teaching drama today hope to bring about by that teaching?

Actual survey of various periodicals and textbooks in the field of speech and drama disclosed *over three hundred such aims.* Eliminating all seeming duplications one hundred seventy-five yet remained. Of course there was still some overlapping, but it was deemed inadvisable to combine or eliminate further.

After all, are such aims or objectives of any value to the drama teacher? Does the mere matter of an accepted set of such objectives serve any useful purpose? Perhaps the drama instructor in one of our famous eastern colleges for women was right when, after returning unanswered a questionnaire on aims, she included this cryptic note,

> "I think that all of us teaching drama should teach it as an art and let the result take care of itself."

The author was willing to grant the impossibility of setting down on paper a group of definite objectives, deliberately taking these one at a time, bringing about a certain degree of its accomplishment in the student and then objectively testing the amount of that accomplishment. Perhaps there are some subjects that may be handled just that way, but drama is not one of them. He did

[2] *Ibid.* p. 34

[3] SCHMIDT, P. E., *Die Buhnenverhältnisse des deutschen Schuldramas.* Requoted from McConaughy, p. 19.

believe, however, that a carefully evaluated, widely accepted group of objectives might serve as valuable criteria for the teacher in this field. He felt, like Professors Hunter and Burford, that

> "If this activity (drama) is to take an honored place in the school curriculum, it is essential first to define the aims which should guide the dramatic director in his work."[4]

Accordingly he set out to determine just what were considered valid objectives in the teaching of drama by those who were actually doing the thing. The list of one hundred seventy-five aims was mimeographed and sent out to one hundred ten drama teachers, sixty in high school and fifty in college, who were asked to evaluate each of the one hundred seventy-five, as, in their estimation, an aim of considerable importance, minor importance, or no importance. About thirty-five percent of each group complied with the request.

The agreement of the two groups as to which aims are valid and which are not was striking. Using the scattered-diagram and Pearson coefficient of correlation the value of *r* was found to be plus .78, a very high correlation. *Of 62 objectives rated 60 or more by the college group, (120 being a perfect rating), 59 were rated 60 or more by the high school group and the remaining 3 were placed very near the 60 mark.* At the other extreme the 17 objectives which the high school group scored below 40 were also scored below 40 by the college group with but 4 exceptions. It would seem that the college and high school teachers of drama are in accord as to what are and what are not their aims in the teaching of their subject.

Let us consider for a moment some of the objectives which were *not* considered valid by both groups of teachers. Take for instance these: "to train actors" and "to give professional training." It is plain that teachers of drama do not believe in the professional aims of their subject. This is unusual in a day when professional and trade subjects are becoming established in high school and college curricula.

The fact that the aim dealing with "play-writing" is also found among those *not* considered valid may be a distinct shock to those teachers of English who hold that it is often desirable to

[4] HUNTER, R. CLARENCE, AND BURFORD, EDITH A., *The High School Play*. Ohio Wesleyan Service Department, 1922, p. 15.

have students write their own plays, pageants, dramatizations and adaptations. Evidently the drama teachers believe that such writing should be done as a composition exercise or not at all.

The aim, "to make money for worthy enterprises," likewise stands low in both groups. Apparently drama teachers believe in so-called 'educational dramatics' and not in staging plays for commercial purposes.

When the aims that were ranked high by both groups of teachers were tabulated they seemed to fall under five heads, namely: (a) The Control of Physical and Psychical Factors of Speech Production, (b) Personal Qualities, (c) Socialization of the Student, (d) Leisure and Entertainment, and (e) Literature Appreciation.

Perhaps the author should make it clear before proceeding further that he does not wish it to appear that the aims here stated are aims only of the drama part of the educational field. It is likely that many are common to several of the other fields in the school curriculum, particularly other forms of oral expression. And in the accomplishment of the objectives the teachers of drama must of necessity work in conjunction with the teachers in other subjects.

It is evident, from rankings given aims in the first group, that one of the outstanding purposes of dramatics is the physical and mental ability of the students to express by voice and body. In this group are such objectives as, "to give the body freedom of movement," "to give training in physical coördination," "to teach such speech fundamentals as articulation, pronunciation, inflection, rate, flexibility." Some speech teachers might ask, with Mr. Wise,

> "Cannot items referring to public speaking, vocal science, phonics, and speech correction be isolated as belonging in another field?"[5]

Plainly, drama teachers think not, but consider the attainment of these ends to be part of their job. So long as most high schools and some colleges have no regular speech courses, these will likely remain important objectives of those who coach plays or otherwise guide dramatic activity.

[5] WISE, C. M., Louisiana State University. From remarks on questionnaire.

There are, no doubt, many who maintain that personality is inherited and cannot be changed by external stimuli. It is not the author's purpose to discuss here this phase of psychology in spite of certain convictions which he has on the subject. He would point out, however, that every one of the forty-odd experienced teachers, who filled out the questionnaire, indicated by their checkings of the objectives that the acquirement, on the part of the students, of some of the personal qualities such as "poise," "originality," "imagination," and "self-reliance" is a distinct aim of drama teaching.

By the scoring given the social aims of drama, it would appear that the statements of Morris and D'Amico are at least partly substantiated. Morris says,

> "Power of drama as a socializing force is tremendous. Through plays and pageants whole communities not on bowing terms with one another have later become friends."[6]

D'Amico adds this,

> "It is an acknowledged fact that the school play is a valuable factor in modern education. Among its attributes are the psychological, the social, and the aesthetic. It exemplifies the American term 'team-work', it strengthens social contacts, and is the meeting ground where parents and school come together in an intelligent play spirit with a common interest—the child."[7]

The fourth group of objectives is concerned with the recreational and entertainment phases of drama teaching. Bagley says,

> "Enjoyment is more than an accessory in life. It is a necessity.—The employment of educational forces in the development of the higher type of pleasures and recreations is thoroughly justified."[8]

Teachers readily recognize this recreation aim by the emphasis they place on the ability to take part, *in an amateur capacity*, in local dramatic and allied productions, and to appreciate good amateur and professional productions, as a desirable quality. They heartily endorse this as an accomplishment they hope to develop.

[6] MORRIS, ANGELA, *Rediscovering Youth*. Journal of Expression, Vol. II, No. 1, pp. 15-16.

[7] D'AMICO, VICTOR E., *Simplifying the Staging of the School Play*. School Arts Magazine, November, 1928.

[8] BAGLEY, WILLIAM CHANDLER, *Educational Values*, Macmillan Co., 1912. pp. 217-218.

Mr. Stover goes so far as to say:

"The *first* motive should be to enjoy, both as student player and audience, good 'theatre'."[9]

Another college instructor adds to the objectives listed on the questionnaire these:

"To reduce movie audiences.
To occupy idle hours enjoyably.
To increase support of worth-while plays, stock-companies, and Little Theatres."[10]

A study of the fifth group of objectives of drama teaching shows that there is a close relation between literature and drama in both college and high school. In some colleges the production of plays is undertaken by or under the supervision of the English department. This is usually true in the high school. We would consequently expect to find in all such cases the appreciation of literature a prominent objective.

SUMMARY: A questionnaire study of the objectives which college and high school teachers of drama have in the teaching of their subject shows that these teachers hope to bring about in their students ,to greater or less degrees, (1) ability to control the physical and psychical factors of speech production, (2) the development of certain personal qualities, (3) the socialization of the student, (4) his entertainment through wise use of leisure time, and (5) the appreciation of literature.

[9] STOVER, IRVING, John P. Stetson University. Remarks on questionnaire.

[10] ELIOT, SAMUEL A. JR., Smith College. Remarks on questionnaire.

FROM SHERIDAN TO RUSH: THE BEGINNINGS OF ENGLISH ELOCUTION

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THE elocution which was taught for so many years in American schools owes its origin to the work of the English writers of the 18th Century. Here was the first attempt to work out a philosophy of the voice or to place elocution upon a scientific basis. Until that time it had been assumed that the graces of delivery were gifts of nature and could not be taught except in some cases by imitation.

The ancients, we know, gave only general advice on delivery. They made no effort to give a scientific treatment of the voice. In general the marks of Greek accent, acute (/) and (\) grave were understood to indicate sliding movements of the voice. Aristotle spoke of volume, rhythm and pitch, but did not analyse them. Quintilian spoke of the raising and lowering of the voice as tending to move the feelings of the hearers, but gave no suggestions as to method.

Thus the English writers had little data upon which to base their work. The first writer to speak of acuteness or gravity of the voice was an old English grammarian, Charles Butler of Magdalen College, Oxford. He brought out the principle that a question beginning with a verb is to be read not only in a higher tone, but with a different "turn" of the voice from other questions.[1] The next important contribution was that of Sir Joshua Steele who "discovered" that the slide or accent of the Greeks was a necessary accompaniment of every syllable of spoken language.[2] The theories of Steele were not put into their final form, however, until 1775 when they were published in *The Prosodia Rationalis; or an Essay Towards Establishing the Melody and Measure of Speech, to be Expressed and Perpetuated by Peculiar Symbols.* This book was an attempt to prove that the English language has melody of modulations and rhythms of quantity, that it possesses the slide

[1] MURDOCH, JAMES: *A Plea for Spoken Language.* New York: Van Antwerp Bragg & Co., 1883. p 22.

[2] *Ibid.* p. 23.

and quantity which were supposed to belong exclusively to the classic tongue. Steele held the idea that the tones of the voice in speech through rhythm and melody could be set down as accurately as could the notes in song. It is this elaborate system of notation which he worked out for accent, quantity and emphasis which *The Prosodia Rationalis* attempted to set forth. Much of the book consists of examples of speech set down with notation.

The most popular work of the time was Sheridan's *Lectures on Elocution* which was published in its first form before the *Prosodia Rationalis* appeared. Thomas Sheridan, (1719-1788), the father of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, was an actor who also delivered lectures on elocution at the universities and who published during his lifetime a number of works on the English language. The *Lectures on Elocution* was first published in England in 1763, the first American edition in 1803. James Murdoch says that Sheridan was the first writer to call attention to the power of sound in our language. He made no analysis of the intonations of the voice. The core of his theory is found in the following extract from the *Lectures:*

"A just delivery consists in a distinct articulation of words, pronounced in proper tones, suitably varied to the senses, and the emotions of the mind; with due observation of accent; of emphasis in its several gradations; of rests or pauses of the voice, in proper places and well measured degrees of time; and the whole accompanied with looks and significant gesture."[3]

He then proceeded to discuss in the *Lectures* articulation and pronunciation, accent, emphasis, pauses or stops, pitch and management of the voice, tones and gestures. As to emphasis and pitch he advised following the tones of private conversation. As Murdoch says, Sheridan "favored 'word painting' and a progress of sounds, or melody made up from following the movements of unpremeditated speech, varied and impulsive."[4]

Sheridan further developed his theories in *A Rhetorical Grammar of the English Language*, a book of 218 pages, which was published in Philadelphia in 1788. In the treatment of voice this was much the same as the *Lectures,* but twenty pages were devoted to showing how the different parts of the body contribute

[3] SHERIDAN, THOMAS: *Lectures on Elocution*, American edition, 1803, p. 13.

[4] MURDOCH, JAMES: *A Plea for Spoken Language*, p. 35.

to expression. All the principal passions and sentiments were analysed to show how they are expressed by various attitudes, looks, gestures and language. The following analysis of modesty will serve as an example of these:

"Modesty or submission, bends the body forward; levels the eyes to the breast, if not to the feet, of the superior character. The voice low; the tone submissive; and words few."[5]

Sheridan, it can be seen, gave only general suggestions in regard to the voice; he set forth no definite rules. He became leader of what was known later as the "follow nature" school and his underlying philosophy was adopted by several later writers.

The first attempt at a scientific treatment of the voice was made by John Walker (1732-1807) whom Murdoch calls the father of the English system of elocution. Walker claimed the honor of having discovered the upward and downward movements of the voice in speech, which he called the rising and falling inflections. Certain turns of the voice, he found, were a combination of rising and falling and these he called circumflexes. This theory of the inflections is set forth in the first part of his *"Elements of Elocution,* first published in 1781 in London. In this to indicate the rising and falling of the voice, the author uses a system of notation made of inclined planes, as falling ——\, rising ——/. These inflections are essential in bringing out emphasis.[6] In this book, too, the author introduces briefly the subject of "harmonic inflection," which we now know as melody.

There is a lengthy description of the various passions such as tranquillity, cheerfulness, mirth, etc., and the manner of expressing each. For example, complaining is described thus:

Complaining, as when one is under violent bodily pain, distorts the features, almost closes the eye; sometimes raises them wistfully; opens the mouth, gnashes the teeth, draws up the upper lip, draws down the head upon the breast, and contracts the whole body. The arms are violently bent at the elbows, and the fists strongly clinched. The voice is uttered in groans, lamentations, and sometimes violent screams.[7]

There is little treatment of time and force in the book and

[5] SHERIDAN, THOMAS: *A Rhetorical Grammar of the English Language.* Philadelphia, 1788, p. 171.

[6] WALKER, JOHN: *Elements of Elocution,* Boston, 1810, p. 166.

[7] WALKER, JOHN: *Elements of Elocution,* Boston, 1810, p. 351.

only a few general suggestions in regard to gestures. In fact, the section on voice is largely a treatment of the author's pet theory of inflections. It "was the first attempt to describe and record the variations of the voice."[8]

These theories were further developed by Walker in *A Rhetorical Grammar, or a Course of Lectures in Elocution,* first published in London in 1785, and dedicated to Samuel Johnson. In the *Introduction,* which is addressed to parents and teachers of elocution, the author advises that in reading the pupil should imitate the teacher as closely as possible. The pupil should be shown how to read every passage. The teacher is advised to mark the pause and inflection and to have the pupil observe these in reading. If the pupils are to be taught in classes, six is enough and the procedure should be as follows:

"The best reader ought to be placed first, the next best second and so on. When they are arranged at some distance, let the teacher give each of these a book of the same kind; then let him read a sentence, and order the first pupil to read the same sentence. When this is done, let the teacher read the next sentence, and order the second pupil to read it likewise; and so let him proceed, in the same manner with the rest, till each pupil has read his sentence after the teacher."[9]

In the body of the book there comes first a discussion of pronunciation, then rules for pausing after various words, particularly parts of speech.

In the treatment of inflection the author goes beyond his earlier work for he gives definite rules for inflections, such, for instance, as that a rising inflection is used at the end of the first direct period of a compact sentence, in words of a series, etc.

In a section on the modulation and management of the voice some general directions are given of which the following are the most important:

To strengthen the middle tone, we ought to read and speak in as loud a tone as possible, without raising the voice into a higher key.

If in the course of reading the voice should slide into a higher tone, and this tone should too often recur, care must be taken to

[8] MURDOCH, JAMES: *A Plea for Spoken Language*, p. 36.

[9] WALKER, JOHN: *A Rhetorical Grammar*, 2nd London Edition. 1787. Introduction.

throw in a variety, by beginning subsequent sentences in a lower tone, and if the subject will admit it, in a monotone.[10]

As to gesture, there are three pages of general suggestions of which the following is typical:

> In speaking extempore we should be sparing of the use of the left hand, which except in strong emotion may hang easily down by the side. The right hand ought to rise extending from the side, that is in a direction from left to right, till it is on a line with the hip; and then be propelled forwards, with the fingers open and easily, and differently curved; the arm should move chiefly from the elbow, the hand should seldom be raised higher than the shoulder, and when it has described its object, or enforced its emphasis, ought to drop lifeless down to the side, ready to commence action afresh.[11]

The last part of the book (pages 219-346) is made up of "A Praxis to the Foregoing Rules on the Art of Reading." The sentences and selections are distributed into several classes according to their structure, as compact sentences, antithetic sentences, etc., and in which the inflections are marked. General directions for reading are given in connection with each kind of sentence.

In the first American edition of the *Rhetorical Grammar*, published in Boston in 1814, the essential theories are the same, but so much of the old material has been omitted and so much new added that it is almost a new work. The Praxis of sentences has been omitted and rules for composition have been supplied from "the best source, Blair's *Lectures* and what was deficient in these has been furnished from Ward's *Lectures on Oratory*, so .... it is presumed the present work is the most perfect of its kind in the language."[12]

Walker explains that the motive for the new edition was to present his idea of the circumflexes of the voice. The rising and falling inflections were explained in the two previous works, but the combination of these on a word or syllable had not been worked out. He says, "These appeared so inseparable from the human voice, so new, and of such real utility in teaching to read and speak, that I could scarcely think that I had discharged my duty

[10] *Ibid.* p. 206.

[11] *Ibid.* p. 214.

[12] WALKER, JOHN: *A Rhetorical Grammar*, 1st American edition, Boston, Cummings and Hilliar, 1814, Preface.

to my country till I had given these modifications of the speaking voice as clear an explanation as I was able."[13] The author states that he had observed that every word had necessarily an upward or downward turn or continued in a monotone. This had been presented in the *Elements of Elocution*, but little notice had been taken of it until the last three or four years. He states that he had observed about ten years before that "these two turns were sometimes united on the same syllable and formed a compound turn either beginning with the upward and ending with the downward or vice versa." These compound tones he called circumflexes, and says of them, "It is to be the novelty and utility of this distinction that the author claims the distinction of the public."[14]

It is interesting to note here the author's reaction to the lack of public interest in these discoveries. He says in the *Preface* to the revised edition, "The sanguine expectations I had once entertained that this analysis of the human voice would be received by the learned with avidity and applause are now over.... I have had the mortification to find few of my pupils listen to anything but my pronunciation." So difficult did the modification of the voice appear that he "was generally obliged to follow the old method 'read as I read, without any reason for it.' Sooner or later these distinctions of the voice must become the vehicle of instruction in reading and speaking.[15]

In this edition as far as the treatment of pronunciation, emphasis and pausing is concerned, there is little change from the earlier edition. It is naturally in the treatment of inflections that the greatest change is found. Here is added the definition of the circumflex. The kinds of inflections here are indicated by / for the rising, \ for the falling, and ^ for the circumflex. A number of rules are given for the use of inflections on various kinds of phrases and sentences. The following will give an idea of them.

1. In a direct period with two conjunctions a long pause with a rising inflection is used at the end of the first principal member.

[13] WALKER, JOHN: *A Rhetorical Grammar*, 1st American ed., 1814, Preface.

[14] *Ibid.* Introduction.

[15] *Ibid.* Preface.

2. In a direct period with one conjunction a long pause with the rising inflection is used at the end of the first part.[16]

Rules are given for the inflection on various kinds of questions and on words used in contrast and in series. This is very much like our own elocution in the latter part of the 19th Century.

The section *Of Rules for Reading Verse* is more detailed than in the previous edition. Rule V is a good sample:

In order to form a cadence in a period in rhyming verse, we must adopt the falling inflection with considerable force in the cadence of the last line but one.[17]

The section, *An Explanation of the Figures of Rhetoric, with Directions for the Proper Manner of Pronouncing them*, contains many more figures in this edition. The list includes metaphor, allegory, metonymy, synecdoche, hyperbole, catachresis or abuse, irony, exclamation, interrogation, enumeration, graduation, climax, repetition, anticipation, concession, correction, inversion, apostrophe, asyndeton, antithesis, omission, communication, lively description, vision, simile, personification.

The treatment of the modulation and management of the voice is more extensive than in the earlier edition; it contains instructions for acquiring high tones and low tones for the voice and also instructions for vocal management. The rules for gesture are the same.

Thus it can be seen that John Walker was an important figure in the history of early speech training. Not only was he a well-known actor of his time, but a philologist and lexicographer as well. His best known work was *A Critical Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language*, published in 1791. Among his other works were *Exercises for Improvement in Elocution* (1777), *Hints for Improvement in the Art of Reading* (1783), *The Melody of Speaking Delineated: or Elocution Taught like Music: by Visible Signs Adapted to the Tones, Variations and Inflections of the Voice, in Reading and Speaking* (1787). In this he introduced the interval, the distance between two degrees of pitch at different elevations. Each interval was given a name determined by the number of degrees on the scale which it covered. With the exception of the interval nothing new was added to his theory by the

[16] *Ibid.* pp. 93, 94.
[17] *Ibid.* p. 172.

works just mentioned. They elaborated the system and added exercises for practice.

The mechanical theories of Walker coming into conflict with the "follow Nature" ideas of Sheridan gave rise to the two schools of elocution which were destined to exist for so long. The followers of Sheridan attacked Walker's system of inflections as highly artificial. The conflict was carried over to the American colleges and academies. Several American editions were published of the works of both Sheridan and Walker and were used as texts in the schools until well into the 19th Century.

The earliest texts published in America were based upon Sheridan and added nothing to his theory. Two of these, namely, James Burgh's *The Art of Speaking* (1795) and William Scott's *Lessons in Elocution* (1795) were discussed by this writer in a previous article.[18] Two others, *The Orator's Assistant* (1797) by Alexander Thomas and *The Pious Instructor* (1806) by Daniel Cooledge were also reviewed by this writer in the Old Books section of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH of June, 1928. Another American book based directly upon Sheridan's theories was William Enfield's *The Speaker* (1799). In this the author states that "Follow nature is the fundamental law of oratory." He adds, however, that the acquisition of this art may be facilitated by rules. These rules are general as,

1. Let the articulation be distinct and deliberate.
2. Let pronunciation be bold and forcible.
3. Acquire a compass and variety in the height of the voice.
4. Use proper accent.
5. Distinguish more significant words by a natural, forcible and varied emphasis. Follow the manner of conversation.[19]

The first important American writer to follow the theories of Walker and the most popular author of the early American period was Ebenezer Porter, president of Andover Theological Seminary. In 1827 he published *An Analysis of the Principles of Rhetorical Delivery*. This was a text for colleges and there is record of its

[18] FRITZ, C. A.: *Early American Works on Speech Training*, QJSE, April, 1927.

[19] ENFIELD, WM.: *The Speaker*, Philadelphia: W. W. Woodward, 1799, p. 17.

use at Harvard, Middlebury, Bowdoin and Andover Theological Seminary. The author states his purpose in writing as follows:

> [To] guard against the tendency of withdrawing attention from emotion and at the same time to acomplish the ends at which Walker aims, in his *Elements of Elocution*, I have much desired to see a manual for students, free both from the obscurity and the extreme particularity of his system.[20]

President Porter's theory of the teaching of elocution is embodied in his directions to teachers:

> [The] student should learn the distinction of inflections... and the teacher's voice should set him right whenever he makes a mistake. In the same manner he should go through all the rules successively....After getting the command of the voice, the great point to be kept steadily in view is to apply the principles of emphasis and inflection just as nature and sentiment demand....No description that can be given of inflection, emphasis and tones which accompany emotion can impart this emotion or be a substitute for it.[21]

The book is in two parts. Part I (pages 13 to 269) is devoted to the discussion of articulation, tones and inflections, accent, emphasis, modulation and action. In the description of inflections the author follows Walker closely, but holds him defective as to the rules for their use. All inflections, he says, cannot be reduced to an exact system, especially in sentiment.[22] The examples for illustration here are chosen from colloquial language because, he thinks, the tones of conversation ought to be the basis of natural speech. In fact, this insistence on a natural or conversational delivery runs through much of the discussion. The rules for inflection are much simpler than those of Walker. The idea of accent is that "the accented syllable of a word is always uttered with a louder note than the rest."[23]

Modulation, Dr. Porter defines as variety in managing the voice. To get this variety the speaker must (1) learn to emphasize, and (2) to cultivate a good degree of discrimination as to vocal tones and inflections. The pitch of the voice may be high,

[20] PORTER, EBENEZER: *An Analysis of Rhetorical Delivery*, Andover: Mark Newman, 1928, Preface, p. 6.

[21] *Ibid.* p. 8.

[22] *Ibid.* p. 45.

[23] *Ibid.* p. 67.

middle or low. A system of notation is given to indicate changes from one pitch to another and to indicate changes in time as (o) high, (..) slow, (oo) low and loud.[24]

In action, the author feels that the best course is to follow nature. There are two extremes, he says, in teaching action, (1) that which encumbers a speaker with so much technical regulation of his movements as to make him an automaton, and (2) that which condemns all precepts. There should be some training, but this should be in the form of general principles rather than minute directions. The habits of the student are of prime importance. "Let these habits be well formed and his own, so as to govern his movements spontaneously, and trust the rest to emotion.[25] The chief purpose of training in action, according to this author, should be to eliminate defects and to correct faults, the chief of which are too much motion, absence of any motion, want of appropriateness of gesture, too constant action and mechanical variety.[26]

At the close of this part are given many exercises under articulation, inflection and modulation. The principle is first stated, followed by a number of sentences with the notations giving directions for reading. The notations are given, however, only when the author's judgment is clear as to the reading.

Part II (pages 267 to 402) is a collection of exercises for practice, made up mostly of familiar pieces such as Hamlet's instruction to the players. No notation is applied to these.

In the light of the modern theory of speaking this book impresses one as the most sensible text of the time. While the author follows Walker most closely, he avoids the extremes both of Walker and of those who would have no rules.

Four years later (1831) Dr. Porter published another book intended for academies and high schools, but which we know was used at Wesleyan University.[27] This was *The Rhetorical Reader: Consisting of Instructions for Regulating the Voice, with a Rhetorical Notation, Illustrating Inflection, Emphasis and Modulation, and a Course of Rhetorical Exercises.* As this text has been re-

[24] *Ibid.* p. 121.
[25] *Ibid.* p. 145.
[26] *Ibid.* pp. 152-162.
[27] Wesleyan College Catalogue, 1846.

viewed in this JOURNAL[28] it is not necessary to discuss it here. The popularity of the book is shown by the fact, as Professor Ewbank states, that in 1843 it had already passed through three hundred editions. It is on the same plan as the *Analysis*, but is adapted to younger pupils. Something of the author's method is reflected in the following extract from the directions to teachers:

> The best way to overcome bad habits is to go directly into the *analysis of vocal sounds as they occur in conversation.*
>
> The pupil should first study the exercise, then mark with a pencil the inflections, emphasis, etc., then read it rhetorically to his teacher. Then he should commit it perfectly before reciting.[29]

Ebenezer Porter was the latest important writer on elocution who acknowledged the influence of the English writers and carried on their theories. Already had begun a movement which attempted to place elocution on an entirely scientific basis and which was destined to change completely the teaching of speech in America. This movement will be the subject of a later article.

We can hardly leave this discussion of the beginnings of elocution without some mention of gesture as a part of expression. None of the texts so far had said anything about action except for a few general suggestions. In 1806 there was published in London a treatise by Gilbert Austin which was the first detailed philosophy of action and which was destined to influence greatly the teaching of speech delivery in our own country. This was called *Chironomia: or a Treatise on Rhetorical Delivery.* As the title page states this is a "Treatise on Rhetorical Delivery: Comprehending many Precepts, both Ancient and Modern for the Proper Regulation of the Voice, the Countenance, and Gesture. Together with an Investigation of the Elements of Gesture, and a New Method of Notation Thereof; Illustrated by many Figures." Chironomia, it should be said, means here the art of gesture. There are in the book 438 pages, the greater number given to action. The author laments the lack of attention given to gesture and delivery by earlier writers. He proceeds to outline an elaborate system of notation illustrated by numerous engraved figures show-

[28] EWBANK, H. L.: *The Rhetorical Reader* by Ebenezer Porter, (Reviewed), *QJSE*, November, 1927.

[29] PORTER, EBENEZER: *The Rhetorical Reader*, New York: Dayton & Newman, 1835, p. 6.

ing every conceivable position of the hand and attitude of the body. The purpose of this notation, he says, is "to produce a language of symbols so simple and so perfect as to render it possible with facility to represent every action of an orator throughout the speech . . . and to record them for posterity and for repetition and practice, as was all common language recorded . . . and may be esteemed useful. An attempt at such a language is here presented to the public."[30]

He then proceeds to describe the various positions of the hands and feet and to apply to them his symbols of notation. In standing, he says, the body must be supported on either limb, while "the front foot . . . which sustains the principal weight must be so placed that a perpendicular line let fall from the hole of the neck shall pass through the heel of that foot."[31] The other foot is merely to keep the body balanced. The various positions of the feet are then described as the first position right, (R. 1.), and second position right (R.2.), first position left (L. 1.), and so on. The mechanical nature of these directions can be seen in the instructions for the first position right:

"In this position the right foot (advanced before the left about the breadth of the narrowest part of the foot) forms with the left an angle of about 75 degrees. The lines which form this angle passing through the length of each foot, meet its vertex under the heel of the left. The principal weight of the body is sustained by the left foot, the right foot rests lightly but in its whole extent upon the ground."[32]

And again in R. 2. the "right sliding forward about half of the breadth of the foot receives the principal weight of the body, the left heel being raised and the ball of the left foot only lightly touching the ground."[33] R. 1. and R. 2. are the same except that the left foot is forward. In the same way several positions and attitudes are worked out.

To illustrate the positions of the whole arm the body is shown in its relation to a sphere. In some gestures the arm must be toward the zenith (Z), in some in the middle plane, and in others in the lower plane.

[30] AUSTIN, GILBERT: *Chironomia: or a Treatise on Rhetorical Delivery*, London: W. Bulmer and Co., 1806, pp. 274-275.

[31] *Ibid.* p. 296.

[32] *Ibid.* p. 298.

[33] *Ibid.* p. 298.

The various positions of the hand are then described and the symbol for each given, as p -hand prone (palm down), s -hand supine (palm up), i -hand index (fore-finger extended, others under the thumb), etc.

Several general rules for gesture are given, as:[34]

The stroke of the gesture should come on the accented syllable of the emphatic word.[35]

Each gesture should have a preparation, stroke, transition and finish.[36]

Gestures should be used with moderation, only for illustration and enforcement.[37]

Gestures should have magnificence, boldness, energy, variety, simplicity, grace, propriety and precision.[38]

Grace of gesture is acquired by imitation of the best models.[39]

Each gesture or position of the parts of the body has its own significance, as,

'The head is averted in horror.'
'The eyes are raised in prayer.'
'The hands descend prone in blessing.'[40]

The last chapter is composed of a number of selections for practice with symbols on each line to indicate the gestures to be used in reciting it, just as on the line quoted above. At the end is a series of plates showing every position of the body with special reference to the hands and feet, with a key explaining what each gesture or position is used to express.

[34] The System of notation can be illustrated by the sentence—

D B s e q
And stands in rapture o'er his hoard: |
R 2

D—eyes downwards
R 2—second position right
B—both hands
s—surprise
e—elevated
q—oblique
|—pause

From Austin; Gilbert: *Chironomia*, p. 369.

[35] *Ibid.* Chap. 16.
[36] *Ibid.* Chap. 18.
[37] *Ibid.* Chap. 19.
[38] *Ibid.* Chap. 20.
[39] *Ibid.* Chap. 22.
[40] *Ibid.* Chap. 21, pp. 483-484.

The *Chironomia* with its mechanical treatment of action exercised an enormous influence upon elocutionary writers for a long time, indeed far beyond the period of the English writers we are now discussing. The discussion of action in Fulton and Trueblood's *Elements of Elocution* (1893) was based directly upon it and some of the plates were there reproduced. The nomenclature given to the positions of the hand in some of our present texts is the same as that first suggested by Austin. Those who followed James Rush at a later period in their treatment of the elements of the voice generally went back to Austin in their consideration of gesture.

This brings us to the close of the period of predominance of the early English writers on elocution. We have seen the work begun by Sheridan and Walker carried to America and the conflict here between their theories. An understanding of these early writers should give us an insight into the reason for the widely differing systems and methods of teaching speech delivery which existed through the whole of the 19th Century and which are found to a slightly lesser extent even at the present time.

EDITORIAL

VALEDICTORY

The volume of publication in the field of speech is increasing steadily. In the past three years the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH has printed about five hundred pages more than in the preceding three years, and only financial limitations have prevented further expansion. A supplement to the November number was prepared by the Committee for the Advancement of Speech Training in Secondary Schools. This seems to be a very satisfactory arrangement for a period of experimentation. If the publication of such supplements should lead to the establishment of a separate periodical of a character somewhat different from the present QUARTERLY, this might well be a progressive step. On the basis of material now submitted to the QUARTERLY, however, it is the opinion of the retiring Editor that further experimentation should precede the founding of a separate publication.

Although generalization about such individual creations as manuscripts are dangerous, the general level of professional writing in our field seems to be rising. The number of contributors from outside the field is increasing, and the cooperation of publishers in the matter of book reviews is gratifying. There have been unfulfilled ambitions, and enough mistakes to prevent editorial complacency, but the pages of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL have represented the substantial work of the scholars and teachers of our ASSOCIATION. In carrying on the work of the last three years the Editor has incurred a heavy indebtedness to the members of the staff. In retiring he desires to thank especially the *Associate Editors*, Messrs. Simon and Drummond, and the *Editors* who have carried the burden of special departments: Miss Lousene Rousseau, and Messrs. Hudson, Simrell, and Baird.

EVERETT HUNT

WE MAKE OUR BOW

Again the ark of the covenant passes into new and untried hands. Rich opportunities and grave responsibilities come with

the editorship of the JOURNAL. Looking back over the distinguished succession to which he has been elected,—O'Neill, Woolbert, Dolman, Hunt—the Editor cannot be free from sincere misgivings concerning his ability to serve the situation competently. However, he deeply appreciates the honor which has been conferred upon him; he will strive earnestly to justify the vote of confidence which he has received; and, as he labors to carry on the splendid traditions of our official publication, he covets and solicits the constant assistance and counsel of all those who have the interests of the ASSOCIATION at heart.

AN EXPLANATION

In this issue will be found the Editor's New York address in appreciation of Charles Henry Woolbert's service to our profession. It is published in fulfillment of the promise made in the JOURNAL for November last and at the request of members and officers of the ASSOCIATION whose judgment has overruled the Editor's natural reluctance to use leading articles written by himself. It has seemed inexpedient to defer the publication of a tribute to our deceased former President and Editor pending the preparation of a manuscript by anyone else. The Editor hopes that the readers of the JOURNAL may be generous enough to think that these special circumstances are really extenuating and therefore condone what otherwise might be considered a violation of the canons of good taste.

The paper, *Psychology from the Standpoint of a Speech Teacher* is the last which Woolbert wrote. It is printed herein with a minimum of editorial change. It merits careful reading. It is timely and thought-provoking. It is Woolbert's final word to us.

HASTILY YOURS

In political circles it is frequently argued that the efficiency of the federal government would be increased by eliminating or shortening the period between the election and the inauguration of a president. Particularly in those cases in which a president is not to succeed himself, the interval between early November and the fourth of March is not likely to produce much other than watch-

ful waiting at best or unprofitable bickering and manœuvering at worst.

The practice of our ASSOCIATION in transferring editorial responsibility for the JOURNAL involves infelicities of a strikingly reverse order. On the final day of every third annual convention a new Editor is elected. The retiring Editor turns over to his successor a file of manuscripts. The posts of associate and assistant editors are automatically vacated as the new Editor takes office. The dazed victim of the nominating committee's activity seeks advice from the executive secretary, the one semi-permanent officer of the ASSOCIATION, only to learn that copy for the next issue of the JOURNAL should have reached the printer on the very day of the election!

This rather plaintive story is told to point the moral that when a new Editor is chosen he should have time to draw his breath, to consider many things, and to organize his staff before he is obliged to take his life in his hands by bringing out an an issue of the JOURNAL. This argues that the retiring Editor should hold over at least until the February number is in the mails and preferably until the June number is ready. How the Editor wishes he had possessed the necessary wit and foresight to provide for this procedure when he was Chairman of the Committee on Constitution and By-laws, one year ago! Perhaps it is hardly expedient to say more now lest such a reasonable proposal should be adopted and put into effect three years hence—thus catching the present Editor coming and going!

CONVENTIONS

FIRST CONVENTION OF WESTERN TEACHERS OF SPEECH

More than one hundred teachers and prospective teachers of speech from the Coast and Rocky Mountain States attended the First Annual Convention of Western Teachers of Speech, held at the San Francisco State Teachers College on Friday and Saturday, November 29 and 30, 1929. This is by far the most significant and far-reaching movement in the field ever attempted west of the Mississippi river. Delegates came from as far as a thousand miles to the southeast, twelve hundred miles to the north, and a thousand to the east.

Most of those in attendance were college and university teachers, as this convention concerned itself mainly with that field. High-school and elementary-school teachers were welcomed, however, and a number of them were present.

Sessions were held covering all the main divisions of the speech curriculum: dramatics, oral interpretation, original speaking, the various phases of speech science, and the teaching of speech. Administration and curriculum, the basic course in speech, oral reading and interpretation, story telling, acting, directing, and stagecraft, public speaking, argumentation and debate, the psychology of speech, voice science, vocal anatomy and physiology, phonetics, functional and organic speech correction, the training of teachers for the public schools and colleges, and the history of the teaching of speech were all touched upon in this convention.

The entire convention was organized around the central theme, "Cultural and Scientific Speech Education Today." One of the incidental aims in the preparation of the program, however, was that of showing the analytical structure of the entire field of speech, from a curricular viewpoint.

The sessions were reported by Mrs. Ludwig Sporleder, Mill Valley, California, for Dr. Calzia, University of Hamburg, Dr. Gutzmann, University of Berlin, and Dr. Fröschels, University of Vienna, specialists in scientific phases of speech.

In addition to the regular sessions, honorary dramatic and forensic fraternity luncheons were held on Friday noon. Special dinners for teachers of speech correction and departmental administrators were held on Friday evening, and the Convention Dinner on Saturday noon, with entertainment features following. Extensive displays of dramatic and speech laboratory equipment were arranged by committees headed by Miss Jessie D. Casebolt, San Francisco State Teachers College, and Earl W. Wells, Oregon State College, respectively.

The Max Factor Make-up Studios offered a $25.00 make-up kit as a prize for the best make-up of the character of Mrs. Malaprop. The contest was won by Chester J. Myers, Utah State Agricultural College, and Mrs. Bertha Jackson McKay, California Christian College.

At the business session on Saturday morning, a constitution was adopted opening membership to elementary, high-school, college, and university teachers in any phase of speech, in all types of institutions, public and private.

Officers elected for the year 1929-1930 were: President, W. Arthur Cable, University of Arizona; Vice-President, Frederick W. Orr, University of Washington; Secretary-Treasurer, Earl W. Wells, Oregon State College.

The annual membership fee is $1.50. A plan of joint membership with the National Association of Teachers of Speech, including subscription to THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, had previously been effected by arrangement with the Executive Council of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION. The joint membership fee is $3.50.

The Second Annual Convention of the Western Association is to be held sometime during the autumn of 1930 at a central point. A much larger number of teachers is expected at that time, and an adequate and profitable program is promised. The needs of secondary-school and elementary-school teachers will receive as careful attention as those of college and university circles.

A number of telegrams of greeting were received by the Convention from mid-western and eastern teachers of speech, among them: Frank M. Rarig, President of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH; A. T. Weaver, Past President; H. L. Ewbank, Executive Secretary; Howard H. Higgins, Educational Editor of *The Platform World;* Rupert L. Cortright and Edwin H. Paget, of the Committee for the Advancement of Speech Training in Secondary Schools; John A. McGee, Editor of *The Indiana Journal of Speech;* and Dale W. Stump, Grand Secretary of Phi Delta Gamma, National Professional Forensic Fraternity.

CONSTITUTION
of the
WESTERN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH*

ARTICLE I. NAME

The name of this Association shall be, THE WESTERN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH.

ARTICLE II. OFFICERS

The officers of this Association shall be: President, Vice-President, and Secretary-Treasurer.

* As adopted November 30, 1929, at the Business Meeting of the First Annual Convention of Western Teachers of Speech, held at San Francisco, California.

ARTICLE III. EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The Executive Committee shall consist of the elective officers of the Association, as named in Article II. The Executive Committee shall have charge of all business of the Association in the interim between conventions.

ARTICLE IV. DUTIES OF OFFICERS

Section 1. The President shall prepare the program for the annual convention, preside at all business meetings of the Association and of the Executive Committee, and perform such other duties as usually adhere to the office of president.

Section 2. The Vice-President shall assist the President and perform the duties of the President on occasions of the latter's disability or absence.

Section 3. The Secretary-Treasurer shall perform all the ordinary duties of the Secretary and the Treasurer of the Association. As Treasurer he shall furnish a financial report to each annual convention.

ARTICLE V. MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. Membership in this Association shall be open, upon application, to any teacher of speech, upon payment of the current annual dues.

Section 2. Other persons may be elected to membership by a majority vote of the members in attendance at any annual convention.

ARTICLE VI. AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be amended at any meeting of the Association by a two-thirds majority of the votes cast.

BY-LAWS

ARTICLE I. ELECTION OF OFFICERS

The officers shall be elected by the Association at each convention. Nominations for this election shall be made by a committee of five chosen in the following manner: Without nominations from the floor the tellers shall distribute blank ballots on which each voter shall place the names of five members of the Association who are eligible to serve on the committee. No ballot containing more or fewer than five members shall be counted. The five members receiving the highest number of votes shall constitute the committee, the one receiving the largest plurality being chairman. Any ties in the voting shall be broken by the President. No one shall serve on the committee more than once in three years. The nominating committee shall propose one or more names for each office. Before proceeding to a ballot the President shall always call for additional nominations from the floor.

ARTICLE II. DUES

Section 1. The dues shall be one dollar and fifty cents ($1.50) per year, payable in advance.

Section 2. A combined membership fee of three dollars and fifty cents ($3.50) shall be acceptable to cover membership in this Association, membership in the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH,

and subscription to the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH—of which amount one dollar and fifty cents ($1.50) shall accrue to this Association in case of new subscriptions to the JOURNAL and one dollar and twenty-five cents ($1.25) in case of renewals—as long as the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION agrees to this arrangement.

ARTICLE III. MEETINGS

Conventions shall be held each year at a time and place to be designated by the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE IV. COMMITTEES

Standing Committees or Special Committees may be appointed at such times and in such manner as the Association by a majority vote may direct.

ARTICLE V. QUORUM

A quorum of the Association shall be one-fourth of the members registered at a convention.

ARTICLE VI. AMENDMENTS

These by-laws may be amended by a two-thirds vote at any meeting of the Association.

MINUTES OF THE FOURTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH HELD AT THE HOTEL McALPIN, NEW YORK CITY, DECEMBER 30, 31, AND JANUARY 1

It is obviously impossible to give a complete record of the proceedings of the New York Convention. We will therefore follow the practice of last year and record only the more important actions of the ASSOCIATION, listing them by topics rather than in the order in which they occurred.

I. RECORD OF ATTENDANCE

The 1929 Convention broke all previous records in the matter of attendance. Three-hundred ninety-five members of our ASSOCIATION registered, as compared with the three-hundred fifty who attended the Chicago Convention last year. The following geographical distribution shows an increasing interest in the eastern states. Thirty-seven states and the Dominion of Canada were represented:

New York	150	Wisconsin	14
Pennsylvania	34	Illinois	12
Massachusetts	25	Indiana	10
Michigan	25	Minnesota	7
Ohio	22	Missouri	7
New Jersey	19	West Virginia	6

Texas, North Carolina—5 each.

Virginia, Washington, D. C., Connecticut, New Hampshire, Iowa, Unclassified—4 each.

Louisiana, California, Maine, Kansas—3 each.

Oklahoma, Utah, Georgia—2 each.

Kentucky, North Dakota, Vermont, Maryland, Florida, Alabama, Nebraska, Wyoming, Rhode Island, Arizona, Tennessee, Canada—1 each.

This year representatives from high schools, teachers colleges, and speech improvement departments in elementary school systems were present in larger numbers than ever before. To show the types of professional interest represented, we have made the following classification:

Teachers in colleges and universities	200
Teachers in normal schools and teachers colleges	30
Teachers in public and private secondary schools	71
Teachers in private schools of speech or studios	27
Speech improvement supervisors and teachers in elementary school systems	19
Graduate students	19
Unclassified	28

II. TREASURER'S REPORT

The financial report of the Business Manager and Treasurer as summarized in the following statement of Receipts and Expenditures was accepted by the ASSOCIATION:

Receipts

JOURNAL subscriptions	$3,083.39
Advertising	633.64
Old copies	126.71
Miscellaneous*	2,178.45
Total Receipts	$6,022.19

Expenditures

Flanigan-Pearson Co. (For Printing)	$2,881.36
Office expenses of Editor and Business Manager	459.36
Secretarial assistance for Business Manager	329.10
Miscellaneous*	2,066.85
Total Expenditures	$5,736.67
Balance on Hand	$ 285.52

Mr. Ewbank said: "The unusually large amounts listed under Miscellaneous require a word of explanation. The $2,178.45 listed under Miscellaneous Receipts includes a balance of slightly more than $800.00 carried over from last year; a loan of $700.00 secured from the bank during the summer to pay printer's bills; $200.00 in repayment of loans made to members of the ASSOCIATION; approximately $100.00 received in payment for the Supplement to the November issue; as well as several small amounts from different sources.

The item of $2,054.85 listed under Miscellaneous Expenditures includes $700.00 in repayment of the loan made from the bank; $200.00, temporary loans to members of the ASSOCIATION; $400.00 voted to the Executive Secretary at the last annual convention; $345.00 for President Ryan's convention expenses for 1928; $150.00 toward President Rarig's

convention expenses this year; $50.00 toward the work of Mr. Lahman's committee; and $21.50 for the work of Mr. Cortright's committee.

For the past five years there has been a slow but steady increase in the membership of our ASSOCIATION. This year we have made special arrangements with the Western Association of Teachers of Speech and with the management of the *Platform World*, which will probably add materially to our subscription list. The activities of the Committee On Speech Training in Secondary Schools will, I am sure, also eventually mean a great number of new subscribers for the QUARTERLY JOURNAL."

In closing the report, Mr. Ewbank expressed his appreciation for the splendid cooperation which he had received from officers and members of the ASSOCIATION during the past year.

III. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SPEECH EDUCATION IN TEACHERS COLLEGE AND NORMAL SCHOOLS

This Committee, under the chairmanship of C. P. Lahman, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan, has made an intensive survey of the situation in teachers colleges and normal schools. Their report, which was unanimously passed by the ASSOCIATION, is printed in full elsewhere in this issue.

The ASSOCIATION voted its thanks to this Committee and particularly to the Chairman, who devoted a large amount of time and energy to the organization of this project. The Executive Council passed a resolution requesting the incoming president to continue Mr. Lahman as Chairman of this Committee.

IV. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONAL DEBATING

The Chicago Convention received a resolution from the Round Table Conference on Debating asking the appointment of a committee to investigate the international debating now being carried on, and to make a report at the next convention. The ASSOCIATION approved this resolution and the following committee was appointed: A. Craig Baird, Robert Burlingame, Raymond F. Howes, Frederick B. McKay, Hoyt H. Hudson, Chairman.

We present herewith the report of this committee's findings and recommendations, as adopted by the ASSOCIATION:

"Your committee, after investigation of international debating by means of a questionnaire and personal conferences with officers of the National Student Federation, submits findings and recommendations, as follows:

1. Approximately four hundred international debates have been held in the United States since 1922. These debates, especially those with teams from England, have had a considerable effect on the debating of American colleges. The influence of foreign debaters, combined with the approval of American debate directors, has led American college debaters generally to work out more personal points of view for themselves and to respect more highly the points of view of their opponents; to be more informal, flexible, spontaneous, and humorous in presenting their argu-

ments; to strive for the approval of their audience by being more interesting and less dogmatic; and to enjoy discussion for its own sake rather than for the opportunity to win a decision. Some debaters have gone to excess in these directions. Some debate directors have felt that the influence of the visiting teams was harmful rather than beneficial. The general consensus of opinion, however, seems to be that we have learned some good lessons from our visitors.

2. There is still a strong demand for international debating on the part of the colleges and universities of the country. This demand continues in spite of the fact that there exists a condition of diminishing returns from these debates; that is, the interest and good results which attended upon the earlier visits of teams from across the water cannot, in the nature of things, be quite so great after repeated visits. However, there are each year some colleges entering upon international debating for the first time, and with many colleges each year's debate is a source of great interest and valuable experience. We find no reason, therefore, to discontinue or to curtail these activities.

3. The National Student Federation, under whose auspices debaters from England, Canada, and New Zealand have made trips to the United States, manifests a sincere desire to coöperate with our colleges in every way. The officers of the Federation point out that they took over this work less than two years ago, that the fee of one hundred and fifty dollars for a debate was the one arrived at by the organization previously in charge of the trips, and that after one year of experience the Federation lowered the fee to one hundred and twenty-five dollars. Some complaints still are made by debate coaches, to the effect that the schedules frequently leave too many days between debates, and the itineraries involve inefficient routing of travel. Other members of our ASSOCIATION have suggested that the cost of the debates could be cut by asking for two-man teams instead of three-man teams to visit us. The officers of the National Student Federation would welcome the advice and assistance, upon these points and others, of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, and are eager that this ASSOCIATION appoint a permanent committee on international debating for these purposes.

4. Upon the subject of return trips by American teams to foreign countries, your committee is forced to recognize that the small number of colleges and universities in any given country or dominion, taken with the fact that at most of these institutions no charge of admission for debates can be made, makes it impossible for the foreign organizations to pay the travelling expenses of American teams visiting them. It is quite evident also that not more than one or two American teams can be sent abroad each year. We believe it to be a fact that a team of American college debaters is not an especially strong attraction at some universities, notably at those in England. However, the officers of the National Student Federation and your committee think that every opportunity should be taken for sending American teams abroad, and the Federation would welcome the help of a committee from our ASSOCIATION in the matter of

selecting the team or teams to be sent. We would call attention to the fact that with Canada reciprocity has already been established. Canadian colleges are this year bearing the expenses of a team made up of representatives from three colleges in the eastern district of the United States, visited last year by a Canadian team.

In view of the facts stated above, your committee offers the following motion:

That the President of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH appoint a committee, to serve for at least two years without change of personnel, to coöperate with the National Student Federation in arrangements regarding international debating; that this committee shall labor with the National Student Federation to remove, as far as possible, inefficiencies of schedule, and other causes of complaint; that it shall ascertain whether the substitution of two-man for three-man teams would meet with general approval from American colleges and would effect a desirable reduction of expense; and that it shall have a hand in the picking of questions to be debated and in the choice of American teams to be sent abroad; and that it shall perform such other services as seem proper and desirable."

The personnel of this committee will be announced in the April issue of the JOURNAL.

V. COMMITTEE REPORT AND RESOLUTIONS CONCERNING SPEECH ACTIVITIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

At the 1928 Convention our ASSOCIATION embarked upon the project of securing more adequate recognition for speech training in secondary schools. The following committee, which had already conducted a preliminary survey of the situation, was continued by President Rarig: Rupert L. Cortright, Chairman; Edwin H. Paget, Director of Publicity; Ralph Dennis, Financial Director; Preston H. Scott, J. Walter Reeves, J. Richard Bietry, Clara Krefting, Stella A. Price.

The following report was presented at the business session of the Convention and formally endorsed by the ASSOCIATION:

"The Committee for the Advancement of Speech Training in Secondary Schools presents herewith, to the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION, its first annual report of actions and recommendations, to the end that speech training in its fullest and broadest import may receive its rightful emphasis in the educational program, and that its advancement may be guided and directed by those best qualified to assume such a significant responsibility.

ACTIONS

I. WORK OF NATIONAL EXTENT.

A. Publications concerning speech in the secondary schools.

1. Publication of first issue of *The Service Bulletin for Teachers of Speech*, November, 1929. 3000 copies distributed under direction of Editors Paget and McGee.
2. Publication, in coöperation with regular staff of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, of a special secondary school sup-

plement, November, 1929. Financing and distribution made possible by coöperation of many members of the profession.

3. Distribution of 3000 announcements of the SUPPLEMENT and many announcements of the *Service Bulletin* through the cooperation of some sixty members of the profession.
4. Active coöperation between the *Journal of Expression* and the Committee resulted in publication of September number devoted entirely to secondary school speech field.
5. Distribution by the *Journal of Expression* of many hundreds of copies of AN OPEN LETTER TO SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS, written by the Committee.
6. *The Platform World* has extended coöperation. A series of articles is being published concerning the teaching of speech in secondary schools.
7. Publication and distribution of 2000 pamphlets: "The School Curriculum and Speech Training."
8. Convention and activity notices have been sent to over sixty educational magazines throughout the nation.
9. Sent to *Journal of the National Education Association* article on the status, need, and suggested nature of speech training throughout the educational system. This has been accepted for a state service and will reach 600,000 readers.

B. Surveys and general information.

1. Compilation of mailing lists of teachers of speech in secondary schools and of administrators. Many "contacts" which must be followed up.
2. Many reprints of especially practicable and informational articles have been distributed in answer to requests and where it was believed they would be helpful.
3. Efforts to coöperate with several special investigating committees and related educational organizations now under way.
4. Correspondence with U. S. Commissioner of Education regarding national survey of secondary education.
5. Several radio talks.

C. Meetings and Associations.

1. Official communications, publicity material, or direct oral reports through representatives have gone to every meeting of groups of speech teachers of which we have been able to get information.
2. Attendance of Chairman at National Convention of Superintendents last February in Cleveland—distribution of pamphlets, study of situation, valuable contacts resulted.

II. WORK OF STATE EXTENT.

A. Publications concerning speech in the secondary schools.

1. There naturally has been excellent coöperation with various state speech journals such as *The Indiana Journal* and with

such specific issues as the Rutgers *High School Debater* and the Texas *Interscholastic Leaguer*.

2. The managers of the many secondary school debate leagues have assisted splendidly in dissemination of information.
3. Recognition of a printed course of study by the state of Oklahoma.
4. Recognition of a printed course of study, in great detail, for both junior and senior high schools by the state of Missouri.

B. Surveys and general information.

1. Preliminary surveys of several state organizations of speech teachers and potential ones.
2. An effort has been made to build up an esteemed and solicited information service. Letters of enquiry from administrators and teachers in nearly every state, have been answered as specifically as available information has allowed.
3. Through the Michigan High School Debate League under the management of Professor Densmore, a statewide survey of speech training was completed. Results have been published.
4. State survey of status of speech training in Minnesota.
5. Assistance now being given to a state committee from South Dakota. This committee is to investigate conditions and draw up courses of study at the request of the State High School Inspector.

C. Meetings and Associations.

1. Members of the Committee have attended, spoken, and distributed printed material at many state and district meetings.

Financial Support

Financial assistance to date has come only from two universities ($700 in all). The National Association met a stationery bill for $21.50. The Business Manager of the Quarterly Journal has aided in many ways. A considerable number of the profession made possible the Supplement by guaranteeing to secure the sale of a certain number of copies.

Considering strictly Committee funds to meet impending demands we have available approximately $100. The inadequacy of this is too evident to justify comment.

Recommendations

It should be clear that the Committee cannot *accomplish*, it can only study, outline, plan, and provide a clearing house of information. Upon every member of the National Association falls the responsibility of accomplishment.

Upon graduate departments is urged the great field for study suggested by a few of the following. The contributions of some graduate departments to these phases of speech training already deserve commendation.

1. To advance toward a solution of the two special problems involving entrance credit and standardization of courses:

A. Uphold the fundamentals of the Drummond report, but revise its

terminology and occasional specific statements in line with recent educational psychology, recommendations, curriculum revisions, as well as advances in the field of speech.

B. Issue, for all secondary school speech courses, a recommended list of textbooks courageously selected and evaluated in detail by a group of acceptable prestige.

C. A course of study for a fundamental course should be submitted to the U. S. Department of Education, to State Departments—should be endorsed by teachers colleges and universities. (Must be flexible and adaptable).

D. A study of educational supervision and control in each state to determine method of procedure and to adapt general recommendations to specific conditions. Education is not in any place determined by individual schools. We must reach the sources of control.

E. In each state there should be a study (as by a Wabash student in Indiana) of speech training in that state.

F. Obtain more emphasis by colleges and universities upon thorough training of the prospective secondary school speech teacher.

G. Each college and university department of speech should urge that entrance requirements include speech among recommended courses for entrance and at least among elections. Even schools of speech have not done this! The influence of the universities upon secondary education is seemingly very real.

2. A permanent director of publicity might well be appointed by the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION to work with the Committee but on a broader representation where desirable.
3. Get actual spokesmen before N. E. A. meetings, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and other vitally important controlling educational groups. Officers of the ASSOCIATION must act constantly and vigilantly to this end.
4. Get articles and editorial material to more popular magazines, and get a variety of writers so Committee will not do all.
5. Send to leading newspapers of country editorial material and facts relating to needs and advances in speech training. The average citizen does not know what we mean by a speech class.
6. Edit the new *Service Bulletin* four times annually.
7. Give aid to continual subscription drive in combination—for both QUARTERLY JOURNAL and *Service Bulletin*.
8. Get mailing list of all state associations such correspondence that each will work in unison with all toward solution of certain professional problems.
9. Study all legislation affecting speech training and the importance of effective speech. Recommend and publish.
10. Send questionnaire to all state educational supervisors and speech directors and superintendents in large city systems, for combined informational and educational purpose.

11. Study reactions of business world to speech training and give general distribution to the many commendations available.
12. Evolve a definite plan of using talking news reels and the radio more effectively to mutual benefit of those promoting and ourselves.
13. Consideration of separate national survey of speech training, compilation of results now obtainable in at least three states and probably available from others, publication of these results in pamphlet form as printed statements of facts for educators to consider."

The following resolution was adopted by the Executive Council:

"The Executive Council deeply appreciates the service of the Committee for the Advancement of Speech Training in Secondary Schools, and recommends that the incoming president continue the same committee for the ensuing year."

Further appreciation of the efforts of this committee were expressed in the following resolution, presented by H. A. Wichelns, Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, and adopted by the ASSOCIATION at the closing business meeting of the Convention:

"Resolved, That the thanks and appreciation of the ASSOCIATION be extended to Messrs. Dennis, Cortright, and Paget, and to the ASSOCIATION'S Committee for the Advancement of Speech Training in Secondary Schools as a whole, for their earnest efforts to promote the development of speech training in the secondary schools."

The Oral Arts Association of California endorsed the activities of this committee in the following telegram read by their representative, Miss Grace Barnes, at the Convention dinner:

"Oral Arts Association, Southern California, 216 strong, sends greetings to NATIONAL ASSOCIATION TEACHERS OF SPEECH. We wish you an inspiring convention and a happy, progressive new year. We wire fifty-four dollars payment for *Service Bulletins* for our members and fifty dollars to be used by Committee for Advancement of Speech Training in Secondary Schools.

ZOE M. MCCLURE, *Treasurer*."

VI. REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE STATE HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING LEAGUES

Mrs. G. E. Densmore, Chairman of this Committee, presented the following report:

"Your committee appointed for the purpose of making a survey of the high school debating leagues of the United States, begs to make the following report:

Data Disclosed

I. The questionnaires sent to the forty-eight states disclosed the following data:

40 states have debating leagues.

4 states do not have debating leagues.
4 states did not reply.

II. From the questionnaires returned by the forty states having high school debating leagues, the following data have been compiled:

Number of High Schools	Number of Debates	Number of Debaters	Size of Audiences
11,392	79,643	99,978	4,080,650

Observations

I. Your committee believes that the high school debating leagues are a valuable asset to the cause of Speech education, for
   A. The debates serve as a means of creating in the general public a demand for speech training in the secondary school and in the college and university.
   B. The debates serve as a means of stimulating in the secondary school pupil an interest in Speech education which results in the institution of Speech courses in the secondary school.
   C. The institution of Speech courses in the secondary school creates a demand for the college trained teacher of Speech.
   D. The interest in Speech education aroused in the secondary school is carried over to the college and university departments of Speech.
   E. The central office of the debating league creates an easy access to the high schools of the United States for the distribution of the publications of the National Association of Teachers of Speech.

Recommendations

I. Your committee recommends:
   A. That the National Association of Teachers of Speech establish a closer affiliation with the high school debating leagues of the United States by
      1. Creating in the convention of the National Association of Teachers of Speech a section for the directors of the high school debating leagues.
   B. That the National Association of Teachers of Speech undertake the improvement of the caliber of speech done by the high school debating league, by
      1. Distributing helpful literature to the high schools.
      2. By using its influence to secure the appointment of a trained teacher of speech as director of every high school debating league."

The above recommendations were adopted by the National Association, and all directors of high school debating leagues will be invited to meet with us at the Chicago Convention.

VII. THE RADIO COMMITTEE ON VERSE SPEAKING

At the first meeting of the Executive Council, J. A. McGee suggested that the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION sponsor a nation-wide radio contest in verse speaking similar to the Oxford Recitations in England. He reported that the Crosley Radio Corporation stood ready to finance a trial contest in one state, and if this proved successful, to sponsor a nation-wide competition.

The Council authorized President Rarig to appoint a committee to investigate the feasibility of this project, and this committee, consisting of A. M. Drummond, Chairman, J. A. McGee, and H. L. Ewbank, reported at the last meeting of the Executive Council as follows:

> "Your committee approves the plan of having the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH sponsor a radio speaking contest in coöperation with the Crosley Corporation, and suggests that the incoming president appoint a committee with power to represent the ASSOCIATION in arranging and sponsoring the preliminary contest. The committee suggests that for the first year the contest be one in verse speaking similar to the Oxford Recitations and urges that professional readers be barred from competition."

This report was approved by the Executive Council and President Dolman has appointed J. A. McGee Chairman of this committee. The remaining members of the committee and detailed plans for the contest will be announced in the April number.

VIII. RESOLUTIONS CONCERNING ASSOCIATION PUBLICATIONS AND PUBLICITY

The members of the Secondary School Committee and the Executive Council discussed at considerable length the inter-relations of the various publications contemplated by the ASSOCIATION. Growing out of the discussion the following resolutions were adopted by the Executive Council:

1. The Executive Council recommends that in order to continue the excellent work already began by the Committee on Speech Training in Secondary Schools, without undue multiplication of the publications of the ASSOCIATION, the Committee On Secondary Schools be requested to present any available service material in the form of supplements to the QUARTERLY JOURNAL, to be published through the existing machinery of the ASSOCIATION.
2. That the President of the ASSOCIATION, the Executive Secretary, the Editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL, and the Editor of Research Studies be constituted a committee on publications, to which all committee publications be submitted for approval.
3. The Executive Council recommends to the Editor of the JOURNAL that supplements be issued from time to time devoted to the interests of special groups in the ASSOCIATION.
4. That a standing committee of five, two of whom shall be the

President and Executive Secretary, be appointed to have charge of Association publicity.

IX. MESSAGE FROM THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

During the past year there has been close coöperation between the National Association of Teachers of Speech and the National Council of Teachers of English on all matters of mutual interest and concern. The following message from Miss Rewey Belle Inglis, President of the National Council, was read at our annual convention dinner:

"To the National Association of Teachers of Speech:

It is a great pleasure to me in behalf of the National Council of Teachers of English to send greetings to the National Association of Teachers of Speech in convention assembled. The common interests of the two organizations, both concerned as they are with the power of the English language to express thought and emotion, would justify a closer bond of union in the carrying out of the activities of the two groups than has been evident in the past. Both the Speech Association and the English Council are conducting research which may be mutually beneficial; both support official publications which may serve to exchange the results of such research and to carry advanced ideas and methods to the rank and file of American teachers.

Opportunity for very specific coöperation is already at hand. Your committee on a study of speech education in normal schools and teachers colleges under the chairmanship of Mr. Carroll P. Lahman has asked the English Council for approval and support of the undertaking. The matter was discussed at our Thanksgiving convention and it was voted to express our willingness to give hearty moral support to the study, and possibly, if necessary, to lend some financial support. All research undertakings must be submitted with detailed plans to our committee on research proposals before appropriations can be made, but with such provision, there is opportunity for a possible means of assistance more tangible than mere verbal approval.

At our recent convention at Kansas City we greatly appreciated the message of President Rarig to our Conference on Speech and Dramatics, in which he outlined so completely the work of the Speech Association and its service to the teacher. May I, in return, enumerate some of the present undertakings of the English Council.

The two which are doubtless of greatest interest to teachers of speech are the study of American pronunciation and the list of plays for school production. The former has been somewhat delayed because of the absence in Europe of Professor C. C. Fries of the University of Michigan under whose direction the study is being made. Part of the work of this committee is the production of a language map to show various trends of pronunciation in different parts of the

United States. Such a map would be of marked value, it would seem, to teachers of speech, especially in moving from one part of the country to another.

The play list is being formulated by a committee headed by Mr. Milton Smith of New York, who has doubtless already asked the cooperation of many of your members individually. The old play list issued by the COUNCIL a number of years ago, was always in great demand, and since it is now out of print the new list will fill a distinct need.

Other projects of the COUNCIL now in progress are the home reading lists for both junior and senior high school, which will be published before the close of the school year, a rating sheet for textbooks, and a new curriculum for junior and senior high schools. Other committees are conducting research in the minimum essentials of language teaching and in silent reading. Still another is promoting peace and international good will. A recently formed committee on elementary English is aiming to strengthen contacts with elementary teachers and to promote better English work in the foundational grades. The first piece of work undertaken by this committee is the making of a home reading list for children below the seventh grade. As a further means of promoting work in the elementary schools, the *Elementary English Review* has been accepted as one of the official organs of the NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. *The English Journal* is, of course, stil the main spokesman for the COUNCIL and now that the JOURNAL is issuing a College Edition, there are really three official organs, each directed toward a different school level.

At our recent Kansas City convention the special Conference on Speech and Dramatics, held simultaneously with six other conferences, was marked by a large attendance and lively discussion. In addition to the excellent message from President Rarig, addresses were given by Mrs. Mabel S. Reynolds of the University of Colorado on "Sincerity in School Dramatics," and by Professor E. C. Buehler of the University of Kansas on "Classroom Attitudes." After the regular program of our annual banquet, Christopher Morley's one-act play, "Good Theater," was presented by the pupils of Southwest High School, Kansas City. Thus you may see that in spite of the fact that the emphasis of this year's convention was on the extension and enrichment of the students' reading, the speech side of English was by no means neglected.

Since my term of office expired with this convention, it is an ex— rather than an active president who is addressing you, but I can safely promise for my successor, Miss Ruth Mary Weeks, Head of the English Department of the Paseo High School, Kansas City, the same interest in speech work and the same readiness to coöperate in whatever seems to be to the common interest of our two organizations."

X. THE AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF DISORDERS OF SPEECH

This Society organized as a special section of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH arranged an unusually comprehensive program running through the entire three days of the convention. Distinguished specialists in mental hygiene, psychology, and speech training for the deaf addressed the conference.

The officers of this ASSOCIATION are:

Elmer L. Kenyon, M. D., President
Samuel D. Robbins, M. A., Vice-President
Alvin C. Busse, M. A., Treasurer
Sara M. Stinchfield, Ph. D., Secretary
Robert West, Ph. D., Chairman, Membership Committee

XI. ACTIONS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

1. The Council voted that the bills incurred by Mr. Lahman's committee should be paid by the ASSOCIATION.

2. Since the teachers colleges and the secondary schools are not at present directly represented on the Executive Council, the president was instructed to invite the vice-presidents representing those fields to sit as members of the Council this year.

3. Professor Main, formerly of Fordham University, and residing in New York City, appeared before the Executive Council with the suggestion that the ASSOCIATION sponsor a memorial for Alexander Melville Bell. The Council appointed H. B. Gough a committee of one to investigate and report at the next convention.

4. It was voted to hold the next annual convention in Chicago, December 29, 30, 31, 1930. The headquarters hotel will be announced in later issues of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL.

XII. REPORT OF THE RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

The Resolutions Committee, consisting of H. A. Wichelns, Chairman, John Dolman, Jr., and E. H. Paget, presented the following report, which was unanimously adopted by the ASSOCIATION:

"1. ELIZABETH AVERY, Professor and Chairman of the Department of Spoken English at Smith College, died on August 12, 1929, after several years of ill health which never dampened her spirits or lessened her interest in the causes to which she had devoted her life.

Coming to her work at Smith College with an established reputation as a teacher of foreign languages and of English in the secondary schools, Miss Avery gave the last ten years of her life to encouraging the scientific study of the principles of speech and their practical application in the improvement of everyday conversation. She had held the posts, first of secretary, later of president of the Eastern Public Speaking Conference, and was at the time of her death a member of the editorial board of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH.

Elizabeth Avery was a woman marked by a great enthusiasm and driving force, by tremendous energy of mind and the keenest wit, but

equally by tolerance and understanding of human beings. She is lamented by her associates as a distinguished woman and a loyal friend.

We also memorialize our loss in the death on February 6, 1929, of MRS. PERLE SHALE KINGSLEY, Professor and Head of the Department of Public Speaking of the University of Denver. One of the earliest members of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION, she served in 1916 as its Secretary and from 1923 to 1926 as a member of its Executive Council.

Mrs. Kingsley we shall remember as one who devoted fine talents and an engaging personality to the task of teaching Public Speaking and its related disciplines. The first woman to be received into Tau Kappa Alpha, she maintained a lively interest in debating and in all forms of public discussion. Although her energies were spent for the most part upon the myriad details of a busy teacher's life, she yet found occasion actively to engage in liberal movements for social betterment. A spirited partisan where she believed principle to be involved, Mrs. Kingsley commanded the admiration and affection even of those with whom she differed. The ASSOCIATION suffered in her death the loss of an honored and a distinguished member; many within its ranks mourn the absence of their friend; and at this time we offer tribute to her loyal service, her useful life, and her gallant spirit.

3. The NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH recommends to public school authorities the appointment of supervisors of speech in primary and secondary school systems, and notes with pleasure that such offices, or similar offices, have already been established in Dayton, Detroit, Gary, Grand Rapids, Los Angeles, New York.

4. The NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH would urge upon the committee conducting a national survey of secondary school education the great importance of a thorough study of the present status of speech training.

5. The NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH would suggest to Secretary Wilbur's Advisory Committee on Education by Radio that its program include efforts for the promotion of better standards of speech.

6. The NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH extends heartiest thanks to the Oral Arts Association of Southern California for its generous support of the work of the Committee for the Advancement of Speech Training in Secondary Schools.

7. RESOLVED, That the thanks and appreciation of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH be extended to the retiring officers and committees for their labors on behalf of the ASSOCIATION.

That the ASSOCIATION express its cordial appreciation for the distinguished work accomplished by Mr. Hunt during his term as Editor of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH.

That the thanks of the ASSOCIATION be duly extended by the officers to the management of the Hotel McAlpin for their various courtesies to the ASSOCIATION.

That the thanks of the ASSOCIATION be duly extended by the officers to the guest speakers on the program of this convention."

XIII. ELECTION OF OFFICERS FOR 1930

At the first business session of the Convention the following nominating committee was elected:

*John Dolman, Jr., Chairman
J. M. O'Neill
Robert West
Herbert A. Wichelns
James A. Winans

This committee presented the following report which was unanimously accepted by the Convention:

Nominations:

President—John Dolman, Jr., University of Pennsylvania
Editor—Andrew T. Weaver, University of Wisconsin
1st V. President—(Representing Teachers Colleges). C. P. Lahman, Western State Teachers College
2nd V. President—(Representing Secondary Schools). Sara M. Barber, Richmond Hill High School, New York.
3rd V. President—(Representing The Western Association). Earl W. Wells, Oregon State College
4th V. President—(Representing Southern Colleges). Helen Osband, Alabama Women's College.

Member of Executive Council:

Dr. Elmer L. Kenyon, Chicago, President of the American Society for the Study of Disorders of Speech.

Editor of Research Studies:

Article 4 of the By-Laws states: "The Executive Council shall elect a research committee, the chairman of which shall hold office for three years and act as editor of research studies." The Council elected Herbert A. Wichelns of Cornell University Chairman and Editor. The other members of the Research Committee will be announced later.

Assistant Executive Secretary:

At the meeting of the Executive Council H. L. Ewbank, who has served as Executive Secretary for the past five years, presented his resignation, to take effect at the 1930 Convention. The Council elected G. E. Densmore, University of Michigan, Assistant Executive Secretary, for the present year, with the understanding that he shall become Executive Secretary when Mr. Ewbank's resignation becomes effective.

H. L. EWBANK, *Executive Secretary.*

* Mr. Dolman dissented from the report of the nominating committee as far as the nomination for the presidency was concerned.

THE FORUM

INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY OF EXPERIMENTAL PHONETICS

To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Nearly two thousand years ago the commentators on the Vedas in India developed the science of speech about as far as it could possibly go by use of the ear alone. Modern phonetics began with experiments made by various scientific men in many lands, but it did not develop rapidly until methods of recording speech were found (Scott and Koenig 1856). Systematic work was first established by Rousselot (Paris 1885): this can properly be called the foundation of experimental phonetics.

The desire for experimental phonetics has become so strong that efforts have been made everywhere to establish laboratories. They now exist in Amsterdam, Berlin, Bonn, Bucharest, Charkow, Cluj, Gent, Grenoble, Hamburg, Helsingfors, Kasan, Leipzig, Leningrad, London, Madrid, Marburg, Moscow, Paris, Porto Rico, Tokyo, Vienna and Warsaw.

To unite all persons interested in the science of speech into a society under control of the laboratory men is the object of the *International Society of Experimental Phonetics.* This was founded at The Hague in 1928. It is composed of the following classes of members: 1. *Fellows;* these are experimental phoneticians of approved standing. 2. *Regular Members;* all persons interested in experimental phonetics. 3. *Associate Members;* libraries, institutes, and other corporate bodies. 4. *Honorary Members;* those who have specially served the science. 5. *Founders;* persons or bodies who have supported the society financially. 6. *Friends;* non-experimentalists who have aided the society. Only Fellows may be members of the Council; the strictly scientific character of the society is thereby preserved.

Membership in the society is obtainable by application accompanied by the year's dues. For 1930 the dues are $2.50 (10

Eng. shillings). The Society has arranged for several official publications which can be obtained at reduced prices. They are: *Zeitschrift für Experimentalphonetik* (quarterly) $1.25 (5 sh) per year (non-members $2.50); *Archives Neérlandaises de Phonétique Expérimentale* (annually) 4 florins or $1.70 (non-members 5 florins): *Comptes rendus de la Société Internationale de Phonétique Expérimentale* (annually) no charge: *Bulletin of the International Society of Experimental Phonetics* (annually) $0.25. *Sprachneurologische Mitteilungen* (quarterly) $1 per year; *Archiv für Psychiatrie und Nervenkrankheiten* 20% discount.

All communications are to be addressed to the President, E. W. Scripture, 25 Howard Road, Coulsdon, Surrey, England.

E. W. SCRIPTURE

BEECHER AND THE USE OF ILLUSTRATIONS

To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

If one will thumb through such a modern text as Brigance's *The Spoken Word* he will be surprised to find so many references to Beecher. Most of the material under the illustration is matched by matter in Beecher. I do not write this to show off my erudition nor to condemn Mr. Brigance. Shurter found the way to Beecher in the matter of illustrations before Brigance did. And before Shurter, Professor Hoyt in his manual *The Work of Preaching* generously borrowed from Beecher. However, antedating these gentlemen by many years, the revised edition of Broadus on *The Preparation and Delivery of Sermons* acknowledges the worth of Beecher on illustrations.

I believe it can be shown conclusively that Beecher contributed to man's knowledge of this means of persuasion. It will be recalled that Aristotle classed examples as one of the two sources of proofs. For Aristotle proof was the only use of the illustration. Cicero and Quintilian accept this dictum and add nothing to it. Up to the time of the Yale Lecturers other writers on rhetorical problems such as Blair and Campbell and Whately add that clearness is one of the uses. So that clearness and proof were the only uses named before Beecher.

Beecher was greatly admired for his use of illustrations. In fact much of the preaching of today, which is largely illustrative in character, might be traced to him. Lyman Abbott, who followed

Beecher in the pulpit at Plymouth Church, says, "Beecher's illustrations were not ornaments attached to his discourse like fringe upon a garment; they were woven into it, a part of its web and woof, so that, in general, it was impossible to remember the illustration without remembering the truth which it illustrated." Broadus classes Beecher with Chrysostom, Jeremy Taylor, Christmas Evans, Chalmers and Spurgeon as an employer of illustration. This abundant use of illustration can be seen at once if one will pick up a volume of his sermons. Beecher's sermons do not outline well. They do not make good models for a book of speech composition.

In 1870 Beecher gave the first of the series of the Yale Lectures. Even such a biographer as Paxton Hibben admits that these Yale Lectures were the best output of Beecher. In this first series Beecher went into the subject of illustrations more completely than any other recorded rhetorical writings on the subject. By a strange co-incidence Broadus, one of the most influential of writers on homiletics, composed his first edition, which I have already mentioned, in 1870.

Now I wish to show that in the revised edition of Broadus brought out in 1897, Broadus used some of the material on illustration given by Beecher. Of Broadus's book, Hoyt Hudson has said, "There are not many alive today who could move through the works of the masters so surefootedly as does Broadus. It is a treatise undertaken by one who felt the responsibility of mastering a subject before he wrote." The following columns will indicate the borrowing of Broadus:

1870 Broadus	*1870 Beecher*	*1897 Broadus*
1. explain	1. explain	1. explain
2. prove	2. prove	2. prove
3. ornament	3. ornament	3. ornament
4. impress	4. impress	4. impress
	5. arouse attention	5. arouse attention
	6. assist memory	6. assist memory
	7. introduce humor	
	8. stimulate imagination	
	9. provides for various hearers	
	10. bridges difficult places	
	11. educates people to use illustrations	
	12. rests audience by proving variety.	

Broadus admits taking numbers five and six from Beecher's discussion. Notice, however, that there are yet six more uses

of the illustration mentioned by Beecher which were not adapted by Broadus. Of course, these uses are not mutually exclusive but it will be admitted on the other hand that they do help toward discrimination. Such discrimination might be of incalculable aid to to the sophomore who has to be impressed with the might of illustrations.

Professor Winans in a letter to me has extolled Beecher's treatment of the illustration. A. E. Phillips has written me, "Beecher in the lectures themselves, and in his sermons and speeches, is an excellent example of the happy use of illustration, and perhaps in this way made more of a contribution than in his chapter on the subject." A typical quotation from Beecher's discourse on illustration is the following taken from Shurter's, "The Rhetoric of Oratory."

> An illustration is a window in an argument, and lets in light. You may reason without an illustration; but when you are employing a process of pure reasoning and have arrived at a conclusion, if you can then by an illustration flash back light upon what you have said, you will bring into the minds of your audience a realization of your argument that they cannot get in any other way.

How many teachers are there who have used the expression "illustration is a window" without knowing where it came from!

Any teacher of speech composition will find Beecher on illustration good reading. It will be stimulating and suggestive. He may have the assurance at the same time that he is at one of the sources of information concerning the use of the illustration.

LIONEL CROCKER, *Denison University*

BRIDGING THE GAP

To the Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Over-emphasis on winning is one of the most vital problems in the field of intercollegiate debating today. The prevalence and the pertinence of this problem is indicated by the great attention given it in recent forensic literature. The reaction against the over-emphasis on the decision has found expression in the no-decision and the audience-decision types of debate.

A change as drastic as that from the decision type of debate with the emphasis on the decision to the no-decision type with the emphasis on everything but the decision cannot be made without

a process of education. The education, or at least a part of it, must come before the change, or else the change will not be successful. This fact holds true in any great change. In the case of debating, if the change is not preceded by the education, there will be no audience to educate. Of course there is the possibility of going out and debating before outside organizations but is not that very act acknowledgement of the failure of the no-decision type of debate before the college audience? Is the college audience not worth educating to the change in the style of debating?

The writer believes that the split-team type of debate affords an excellent means of educating the audience away from the undue emphasis on winning to a proper conception of the real merits of discussion. It is a transitional medium between the decision and the no-decision type of debate. It is the capsule by which the bitter dose of a new conception may be swallowed with a minimum amount of unpleasantness to an old prejudice.

The split-team system retains the decision. This is an attraction to the person who holds the opinion that a debate is not a debate without a decision. At the end of the debate he does not feel that the discussion has been futile and that the evening has been wasted. He can "wrap the drapery of his couch about him and lie down to pleasant dreams" with the satisfaction of knowing that "the affirmative won" and "the negative lost" or vice versa.

This system destroys the idea that debating is a medium of high pressure competition between institutions. The home team has one man on each side of the question. The audience ceases to think in terms of "our men taking another scalp." It begins to see that each man has a case; that the question is not one-sided with the advantage overwhelmingly in favor of the home team. The merits of the *discussion* and not of the *debaters* comes to have a predominance of attention. Under the old system blind prejudice precludes the possibility of proper weight being given the arguments of the visiting team. The discussion is interesting only as it contributes to the jingoish competition between the home team and the visitors.

The split-team system is conducive to a friendly and a wholesome conduct between the institutions participating in debate. One of the aims of intercollegiate debating is to provide a *friendly contact* with other institutions. Under the old system, the empha-

sis on the decision and the extreme difficulty of getting satisfactory decisions often makes the contact anything but friendly. Frequently "the players have picked up their marbles and gone home in disgust." The debate is a veritable breeding place for suspicion, distrust and ill feeling. The split-system really permits the representatives of the two schools to work together and from this working together there arises a wholesome feeling of respect and friendliness between participating institutions.

The split-team system is conducive to a high type of debate. If it is properly conducted, each speaker must thoroughly acquaint himself with both sides of the proposition. Ability in extemporizing is an essential requirement of the split system. This adds spice and spark to the discussion. Added to the incentive of making a good showing the debater has the incentive of "beating his buddy." A great deal of excess formality may be dispensed with. The affirmative does not have to be extremely particular about giving offense to the negative because the negative is not the entertaining team or the visiting team but a combination of the two. In the debate at Greenville, South Carolina last year between Asbury and Furman, the audience expressed great pleasure in the good humored cross-fire between speakers of the same institution.

The split-team system permits fair audience judging. For once, the audience-decision becomes meaningful. The advantages of the audience decision do not need elaboration here. Sufficient is it to say that this type of decision provides the nearest approach to a real life situation.

After the audience has listened to a few debates conducted on the split-team plan, after it has enjoyed the pleasure of a greater participation in the discussion, a discussion sparkling with extemporaneousness and impregnated with friendliness and good feeling—after it has enjoyed these things with scarcely a thought for the fact that the home team neither wins nor loses—, the writer is of the opinion that to array the speakers of the two institutions against each other with the omission of the decision will be a comparatively short and easy step. The audience will have become educated.

B. I. WILEY, *Asbury College*

NEW BOOKS

The Art of Play Production. By John Dolman, Jr., Harper and Brothers, New York, 1928: pp. 465, $3.50.

John Dolman's "The Art of Play Production" comes as a welcome addition to a long list of books on theatre practice published in the last few years. It is a rare combination of sound theory, usable technique, and rich scholarship. In both style and content, is a worthy textbook for courses of college calibre.

Mr. Dolman, unlike many other writers on the subject, has treated play production as an art rather than as a series of technical devices of a purely objective nature. Inasmuch as it is an art, he approaches it from the point of view of the fundamental principles of modern psychology and aesthetics. As a result, his work includes a number of new features which he alone has seen as pertinent to the problems of play production as an educational activity. His discussions of the value of the fine arts in general and the conventions of art; his analysis of aesthetic principles; and his study of appreciation, and of the relations among stimulus, associated experiences, and motor attitudes as sources of aesthetic pleasure are all familiar to critics of the graphic arts, but new in the arts of play production.

His clear and stimulating adaptation of Langfeld's discussion of empathy to casting, to naturalism, to poetic justice, and to detrimental aesthetic effects in the theatre is another example of a shrewd utilization of what has been discovered in other arts to that art which is so eclectic that it embodies the canons of all the arts. His treatment of the problems of artistic detachment; illusion; and design, with its fundamental principles of unity, emphasis, rhythm, balance, proportion, harmony, and grace, are also new materials not previously found in books of this character. He succeeds in coordinating play production with all the fine arts.

A second real contribution of the book is the treatment of the psychology of the theatre in the chapter on the "Control of At-

tention." "The kinds of attention," "Methods for securing and holding attention," and "Directing attention" are discussed and applied to the problems of the stage. They represent a series of ideas long familiar in the fields of speech and psychology but strangely neglected in the theatre. Now that they have been expressed in their relation to the theatre, their previous omission is so obvious that one is astounded to find that no one else has had the insight to correlate in one book ideas culled from such diversified and yet apropos sources. These are briefly the new materials which give exceptional distinction to the book.

The remainder of the text is devoted to excellent instructions, in somewhat conventional form, for play preparation, action, movement, stage business, casting, methods, rehearsal schedules, polishing, theories of acting, and voice and diction. These are amplified by many practical suggestions sifted from the author's experience. This subject matter is concretely analyzed and vividly illustrated, and furnishes an excellent working summary of the fundamental principles to be followed in producing plays.

Compared with the first chapters, the last sections of the book on stage mechanics are somewhat sketchy. The chapter on stage management is excellent. The brief history of scenic art and the summary of modern principles of stage design are good though brief. A finely illustrated chapter on amateur stagecraft is stimulating for those teachers who work with limited scenic facilities. The laws of color, color-mixture, and color-harmony are also significant parts of these chapters. Makeup, however, receives only fleeting treatment and the problems of stage lighting are handled with similar brevity. In reading the final chapters, one often feels that they have been cut to fit the requirements of a book already voluminous; hence this concluding material, though good so far as it goes, leaves one wishing that it had been developed with the same detail as the preceding sections. However, even here, the faults are those of omission rather than commission.

The book is composed in an excellent and interesting style which will appeal to the layman as well as to the specialist. It is the outstanding achievement in the field to date; a monumental volume which will do much to bring scholarly dignity to a much abused subject. It is one book which all people interested in the

theatre should own; it is irrefutably the most dignified and practical of all the text books on the subject.

WILLIAM CHILTON TROUTMAN,
University of Wisconsin

Debating For High School. By RAY KEESLAR IMMEL AND RUTH HUSTON WHIPPLE. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1929: pp. vii, 251.

That textbooks on high school debating should grow out of definite secondary school situations has long been the opinion of many debate directors in the high schools. *Debating For High Schools* conforms to such a standard. It is the product of the authors' activities in the work of the Michigan High School Debating League. As such, its contents should articulate closely with the work of the many directors in the various organized Leagues throughout the country.

The point of view represented in this text may best be secured through a few of the prefatory remarks of the authors:

> Perhaps one of the merits of the book, if merits it has, will be found to consist in what is left out of it. For instance, the usual traces of formal logic will be found missing. While we hope that our conception of debate includes the idea that it is a logical process, we have searched in vain for someone who has succeeded in building up practical debate experience on a basis of formal logic. Though we admit that some elementary knowledge of inductive and deductive argument may not harm debaters,—any more than a knowledge of Latin harms them, at any rate,—still we feel that from a practical point of view it is perfectly possible to dispense with logic as such and to allow the student to approach the subject from a purely common-sense point of view. Our experience, and the experience of many others, forces us to conclude that formal logic has no necessary or even desirable place in a textbook for high school debaters. We have divorced it.

Although it is to be doubted whether the common-sense point of view, referred to above, is not materially improved by a knowledge of the more elementary facts of formal logic, it cannot be said that the authors have not been able to adapt the material of the text to their readers. In fact, one of the significant features of the book is its unusual adaptation to secondary school needs.

The chapter on Refutation is especially good. Particular em-

phasis is placed upon adaptation in refutation. Since this is one point where so many secondary school debaters fail, the authors seem to have placed their stress very wisely. The more common fallacies are also given treatment in this chapter. At this point one is forced to wonder, however, whether the students will grasp the idea of weakness in argument when no previous treatment has been given to argument proper.

On the whole the text is thoroughly stimulating. The different phases of debate technique are presented in an orderly way and after a manner which is easily understandable. The illustrations are drawn for the most part from practical situations, so the abstract is reduced to a minimum. And the exercises in the chapters should cover adequately the secondary school needs. The appendices include model briefs, propositions for debate, and allied material. All of these factors combine to make the text one of the better productions of its kind in the field.

LESTER W. THONSSEN, *University of Iowa*

Business and Professional Speaking. By WILLIAM PHILLIPS SANDFORD AND WILLARD HAYES YEAGER. Chicago: A. W. Shaw Co., 1929: Pp. x, 374. (This text is also issued in three volumes by the A. W. Shaw Co.)

That effective speech is a business asset has been increasingly recognized in recent years. Routine conversation between business associates, the discussion of policies and problems, instructions and orders, sales talks, and speeches at conventions and on other public occasions suggest the importance of speech-making to the business man. To meet the demand for speech training, courses in business speaking in college, university, and in community associations have multiplied during the past decade. Few texts in this field have been written. To meet this need Sandford and Yeager have provided the present edition. *Business and Professional Speaking* is intelligently and sanely written; it is comprehensive; and it succeeds admirably in its purpose.

The book is in three parts. Part I (pp. 5-121) deals with "Principles of Persuasive Speaking"; Part II (pp. 125-245), "Types of Business Talks"; Part III (pp. 249-365), "The Personal Conference."

The first part attempts in 125 pages to summarize the theory

of speech, the theory much more completely set down in these authors' *Principles of Effective Speaking*. The brevity of this section naturally raises a question as to whether or not the treatment is adequate. The book presupposes either preliminary courses in speech fundamentals or an excellent teacher to supplement the highly condensed discussion of delivery and other topics. The chapters on "Analyzing the Auditor" rightly take up one-half of the section. Especially helpful is the chapter on "Finding Material." Part I would have better balance and greater practical value if more stress were given to vocabulary and other details of speech composition. (The usefulness of W. G. Hoffman's *Public Speaking for Business Men* has been increased by chapters on "Improving the Vocabulary" and "Grammar.")

Part II deals in successive chapters with "Instructions and Explanations," "The Oral Report," "The Sales or Promotional Talk," "The Inspirational Speech," "Discussions of Policy," "Good Will Speeches," "Speeches of Courtesy," "The After-Dinner Speech," "Radio and Telephone Speaking," and "Conducting a Meeting." In most cases an extended example of each type is included. The reader is surprised to note that only a single chapter, or part of a chapter, is given to the sales talk. The authors, anticipating this criticism, point out that throughout the book are definite helps for the preparation and presentation of the sales speech. The chapter on "Discussions of Policy" is largely a review of good argumentation practice, therefore another chapter might well have been included in this part, dealing with "Group or Committee Discussions," a type of speaking which was developed within recent years, especially in shop committee situations, and which requires a definite technique.

Part III, containing eight chapters on "Personal Conference," is the most original section of the book. The reader, familiar with the literature of conference speaking and committee discussion, will perhaps expect to find here similar material. Instead he discovers that "Conference Speaking" is the "meeting of two persons (frequently more than two but usually not over eight or ten) in which one seeks to inform or persuade the other." The eight chapters make clear that the purpose of the typical conference is primarily to persuade rather than to inform. In fact the personal conference section turns out to be largely a presentation of

principles of salesmanship. The chapter on "A Conference Analyzed," for example, is the analysis of a successful life insurance canvass. The illustrations in the other chapters are invariably those of the salesman versus the prospect, or as the authors describe the participants, "conferrer" and "conferee." More examples of the types found in the authors' *Projects for Personal Conferences, Business and Professional Speaking* (mimeographed edition) would have indicated a broader application of the excellent principles set forth in this section. It should be added that this text would have greater pedagogical value if exercises, problems, and assignments were included.

The material in general is that of the business world. Either the title should then be limited to "Business Speaking" or the content should be enlarged to meet the needs of prospective engineers and other professional groups.

In general, the inclusion of suggestions concerning the radio speech, oral report, and other modes of practical address in Part II and the discussion of the personal conference in Part III constitutes a definite and highly original contribution to the literature of speech pedagogy. Sanford and Yeager are thus leaders in the new emphasis in speech training for business. This text will no doubt have ample sales and will encourage colleges and universities to introduce courses in "Business Speaking."

A. Craig Baird, *University of Iowa*

The Mechanism of The Larynx. By V. E. Negus, M. S., London, F. R. C. S., England; Junior Surgeon for Diseases of the Throat and Nose, King's College Hospital, London; Late Arris and Gale Lecturer, Hunterian Professor, and Hunterian Medallist, Royal College of Surgeons of England, With an Introduction by Sir Arthur Keith, F. R. S. and a foreword by Max A. Goldstein, M. D., St. Louis. St. Louis, The C. V. Mosby Company, 1929, pp. XXX, 528. $16.50.

SUMMARY OF CONTENTS

1. Evolution of the larynx.
2. Modifications of the larynx for olfaction and for respiration.
3. Functions of movements at the glottis during respiration.

4. Modifications of the larynx for deglutition and for the regulation of intrathoracic pressure.
5. Purposive use of sound in relation to the sense of hearing.
6. Employment of sound as a means of communication.
7. Mechanism of phonation.
8. Physiological anatomy of the human larynx.

This is an age of specialization,—trite but true. We have two types of specialists, (1) the "dividers" and (2) the "appliers." The "divider" earns his right to the title of specialization by refusing to concern himself with, or to profess any knowledge of, any but his own particular corner of the field of science. Specialization in this meaning of the term is a limitation of the scope of his activities. True, it may result in the exertion of increased effort within his limited area of the field, but he earns his title not by the intensity of his effort but by the narrowness of its scope. He is a specialist because he is a "divider" of the field, and insists upon working in but one of the divisions.

The "applier" on the other hand, earns his right to the title of specialist in that he sees all life and experience in terms of his own scientific interests. Every fact of life must relate itself to his specialty. With Tennyson he believes that to understand the "flower in the crannied wall," he must know the universe, but when he has begun to know the universe it looks to him very like the flower. His specialization consists not in the limitation of his activity but in the application of all possible methods and facts to the solution of his special problems. He is a specialist because he is an "applier."

Negus is of this second variety. He has studied, dissected, and talked about the larynges of so many animals in so many conditions of life that apparently to him *cosmos* and *larynx* are synonyms. He explains the very habits of an animal in terms of his larynx, mentioning such items as the habitat and mode of existence; whether or not the animal is usually visible or invisible; whether he sleeps by day or by night; whether he is solitary or gregarious; whether he is monogamous, polygamous, or non-mating; the fixity of his home; the speed of his movement; whether he is predatory or preyed upon, or both, or neither; what uses he makes of his four limbs, etc. Negus goes so far as to say, "there is no doubt in my mind that many of the steps by which man evolved

can be traced accurately from the evidence of the larynx." In this evolution he traces the development of the larynx in relation to: the size of the animal, his sense of smell, and his keenness of sight, habits of eating, mode of existence, intelligence, posture, skeletal configuration, etc.

The completeness and thoroughness of this book amazes the reader. A mere review of the physical proportions of the volume is impressive: 528 large-size octavo pages with printing barely large enough to read comfortably, 160 plates, and fifteen tables (too bulky to be printed in the text) included as inserts attached to the back cover. It will occupy a large space in your bookcase and a larger place in the shelves of your mind for it is a "big" book.

Dr. Negus has brought to the study of the larynx the lore of many branches of science: surgery, anatomy, zoology, embryology, physiology, otolaryngology, and phonetics. He has coordinated and integrated his materials so well that the reader readily grasps the significance of each minor topic in the development of the major theses of the work. In so large a book one might expect confusing elaboration of details and prolixity of style. On the contrary, the reader is impressed with the author's economy of detail and compactness of style. He views the larynx from many standpoints, but from each describes only the essentials and that with terseness. The book is a store-house of scientific facts about the larynx, and these facts are so selected and organized as to enable one to use the text as a reference work.

If Dr. Negus had done nothing else in his life except to prepare this book, and if he should do nothing more before he passes to his reward, this one work would still stand as a most impressive monument to his scholarship.

Everyone engaged in the study of the scientific aspects of our field should have access to this volume.

ROBERT WEST, *University of Wisconsin*

Bryan. BY M. R. WERNER. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Company, 1929. 374 pp.

In the last analysis, Mr. Werner's treatment of Bryan will be weighed in the light of each reader's personal view of the man. If

we are anti-Bryan, we shall delight in the caricature of the man here presented. If we are pro-Bryan, we shall resent it.

It may be said that Bryan is too close upon us to allow any purely historical perspective. Yet to the reviewer, the man offers a subject for distinct historical analysis. First, last, always—he was an agitator. With an individual variation, he fits into the same historical setting as Patrick Henry or James Otis, Samuel Adams or Thomas Paine, Wendell Phillips or William Lloyd Garrison, Daniel O'Connell or Jean Paul Marat. Like them, he was gifted with a rare power of influencing other minds, a power at times almost inexplicable. Like them, he was ruled in general by his passions rather than by his intellect; and, being so ruled, he was led into errors exceeding the number allotted to the average leader. Like them, he often was more consistent than wise. Like them, he was intolerant of those who opposed him even to the extent of fanaticism. Even more, however, than the average agitator, did Bryan exert immediate influence and hold his place in the foreground of political leadership during a period which saw the political rise and decline of Roosevelt, Wilson, Taft, and Harding. It is a phenomenon that needs explaining.

All of this, however, escapes Mr. Werner's eye. One wonders whether this arises from a deficient knowledge of history, or whether the oversight is deliberate. One suspects both, with special emphasis on the latter. Somehow through the pages of this book there creeps upon the reader the conviction that Mr. Werner—fresh from triumphs over Brigham Young and Tammany Hall, has selected Bryan deliberately as his next victim. A few quotations will give us his attitude toward the intended victim:

> "Some of them ... felt that the orator could not believe what he said; but his condition was worse than that; Mr. Bryan did believe what he said, for he was always the first one to become intoxicated with his own eloquence." p. 47.
>
> "In the 'Prince of Peace' ... there is this passage which runs the death of Little Nell a close second for the booby prize of literature:" p. 138.
>
> "It is difficult to believe in Bryan's attraction when one reads his speeches but it must be remembered that they were not composed to be read but were carefully orchestrated for his extraordinary voice." p. 139.
>
> "With that mellifluous eloquence which largely distinguished him from the higher apes, Bryan sang this plaint..." p. 304.

Theodore Roosevelt once said that he had advocated as many foolish things as Bryan, but that upon seeing his mistakes he dropped them instantly and made so much noise over his sensible ideas that the public forgot the foolish ones,—whereas Bryan advertised his foolish ideas by remaining forever in love with them. Perhaps it was this fact that led Mr. Werner to overlook or minimize the wise or successful reforms that Bryan advocated—including, for example, each of the last four amendments to the constitution.

Paradoxically enough, Mr. Werner also overlooks the obvious facts of Bryan's enormous political influence, even though the key facts are included, however casually, in his treatment of the man. One illustration among half a dozen will suffice; Bryan is pictured in 1924 as a politically decrepit old man, wholly toothless. But when the picture is painted, the announcement is casually dropped that his party was forced to nominate his brother for Vice President for fear of losing the decrepit old man's political support.

When the issue of "The Descent of Man" is reached, Mr. Werner descends from biographer to debater. For twenty pages it is an out-and-out Bryan-Werner debate. Be it said to the credit of Mr. Werner that Bryan is allowed to offer his heaviest arguments upon the subject. No effort has been spared to array them. Against the staunchest Bryan arguments, Mr. Werner advances to the attack. Repeatedly he draws Bryan on and traps him in the fallacy of begging the question. But begging the question proves to be the only fallacy with which Mr. Werner has made acquaintance, and even as he chortles over Bryan's errors in this direction, he is himself caught in an array of post hocs, and ambiguous middles. The debate ends in a draw. But it is well worth reading.

To this reviewer, these are the criticisms of Mr. Werner's interpretation of Bryan in American political life. Yet the book has merit. It is written in a style that is interesting, clear, and pointed. All known available source materials upon Bryan's life have been covered and from them come many facts heretofore unknown. Especially fruitful was the careful examination made of the Bryan correspondence now in the Library of Congress, which reveals many delightful sidelights not only upon Bryan himself, but upon other recent and contemporary public leaders. No

student of Bryan's place in American political life will care to omit Mr. Werner's portrait.

WILLIAM NORWOOD BRIGANCE, *Wabash College*

Modern Speaking. BY PAUL R. BREES AND J. VERNON KELLEY. Chicago: The Follett Publishing Company, 1928; pp. viii, 264.

Modern Speaking, apparently the result of considerable sifting both of the authors' experiences and of their theoretical knowledge, is a clear, three-fold exposition for the student of the problems involved in preparing and delivering speeches. In some respects, it is just another textbook in public speaking with the usual questions at the ends of chapters. In the discussion of *The Speech* in Part I, the authors organize information concerning the selection of subjects, the gathering of material, and the preparation and judging of the speech. They stress the importance of selecting subjects in which the speaker is interested, the distinction between the speech sleuth and the thinking conversationalist who asks questions intelligently, the value and kinds of outlines, talking to an imaginary audience, and the need of naturalness, terseness, and completeness as tests in preparation. As criteria in judging the speech, they suggest: Is it adapted to the occasion? does it fit in with the other speeches of the occasion? is it adequate? is it well organized? does it progress? is it definite? is it friendly? and does it vary in mood?

In Part II, *The Speaker,* the psychology of mental attitudes, especially the basis of good speaking in sincerity and earnestness, is the first consideration. The forensic question as to whether one can be sincere and deliver a speech first on one side and then on the other side is answered in one sentence: "Being sure of oneself, after all, usually amounts to seeing only one side of a proposition, and the honest skeptic is not only as sincere but he has a more wholesome and promising attitude toward the subject." The eyes and face, gesture (the hands and body), voice, and personality complete the analysis of Part II, with emphasis upon interpreting not only intellectually but also emotionally. "You should have no conscious and active desire to conceal your true thoughts and feelings from those about you, or those in your audience when you make a speech" is the verdict regarding the importance of facial mobility and emotional freedom of the speaker. The discussion of "eye habits" should be helpful to a beginner if he happens to be

interested and really seeking information,—the avoidance of rapid blinking, of slowly lowering the eyelids at important points, of shooting the eyes rapidly from one side of the room to the other, of the squinting habit, and of fixing the eyes on a distant point and not looking at the audience at all. Relaxation plus emotional stimulus is given as one of the keys to right gesturing. A certain amount of reserve which leaves the impression of ease, co-ordination and proper timing of movements, and the cultivation of the impulse to gesture with much still depending upon individual inclination and experiences, upon physical training, and upon the conformation of the body are some of the guiding factors in gaining real "integration" in gesturing, according to these authors. Through the voice comes the mental and spiritual contact with the audience, and here the emphasis is less upon the vocal mechanism *per se* and more upon the subtler aspects of quality, timing, and force for transferring meaning, and expressing personality.

The Audience, Part III, is dismissed with a brief chapter dealing with crowd characteristics and means of persuasion. Two lists of suggested assignments for an eighteen-weeks term, the class meeting twice a week, complete the book. List A is a suggested course of study in which the principles of speech precede the actual speaking work. In List B principles and practice work are given simultaneously.

While this text is excellent as a catalogue of facts, is logical and concise and contains some very helpful suggestions in Part II, still it is not exactly stimulating, if it is written, as it seems to be, primarily for the student. It is too chilly in its logic at times to lead the students to want to make speeches, and, if they feel no urge, all the theory in the world, however neatly flounced in 1's, 2's, and 3's, will not help. "It is hard to be original but try to be," "To learn to speak you must speak," "You must be filled with enthusiasm and earnestness" are rather pale encouragement under some circumstances. If the book were full of original examples and more provocative subject matter, the students would better understand the meaning of originality, which is scarcely to be confused with the rock-ribbed Puritan virtue beginning with "You must" in abstract statements about hypothetical situations. *Modern Speaking* has apparently suffered the fate of many books on this kind of subject which often loses flexibility and life too quickly when taken

from the classroom practice which has doubtless been very much alive, and incarcerated within the covers of a book where even *Facetiousness* becomes a mere word, heavy-typed, used as a subhead of a chapter. It is speech work in cold storage.

On the whole, therefore, though this text contains some commendable material, might one not venture the question at this point: Why is it necessary to write any more texts on public speaking for a while?

DOROTHY KAUCHER, *Wells College*

The Problem of Stuttering. By JOHN MADISON FLETCHER. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1928; pp. vii, 358.

Professor Fletcher's diagnosis and plan of treatment for stuttering is the fourth publication in the Longmans Psychology Series of which Professor Harvey A. Carr of the University of Chicago is editor. To this analysis Professor Fletcher brings twenty years of experience in university laboratories, hospitals, and clinics, and in his words, it "represents an attempt to offer certain explanations of the apparent failure of present methods together with a new and it is to be hoped, a more psychologically sound method of approach to this very old problem." It is not a commercial scheme for profiting at the expense of the stutterer. It is a protest against the unwitting cruelties still perpetrated on stuttering pupils by snappy, exacting, and critical teachers, and against the assumption that stuttering is a medical problem to be handled in a clinic as a speech defect. To Professor Fletcher, "we have been and in large measure are still asking ourselves how to *drill,* or how to *treat* the stutterer in order to *cure* him of a defect of speech. "We should, rather ask ourselves how we may environ him remedially so as to recondition him to his social world advantageously. In the author's opinion, the problem of speech for the stutterer is to be regarded, not as abstracted processes of articulation but as a complex mental reaction to a concrete social situation, expressing itself in vocal-motor responses. An unrelieved, socially irritating situation and the daily necessity of speaking under hampering conditions cause stuttering to persist.

The author also insists upon a distinction between one suffering from aphasia or loss of power of speech and the stutterer who can speak as fluently as anyone under certain conditions, and

who has no form of cortical disease to be *cured*. To Professor Fletcher, stuttering is a morbidity of emotional reactions of a specific sort, resulting in an intermittently appearing inability to talk in certain social situations. It differs from both aphasia and difficulties in articulation, organic or developmental, first in the fact that "it is not referable to any central or peripheral cause nor has there been demonstrated any constantly operative physiological peculiarity that can be cited as its cause," and second, in the fact that it is intermittent. It is remediable, however, because it presents no irremediable defects of body or of mind.

In approaching the presentation of his own theory that stuttering is a phenomenon primarily of the emotional life, Professor Fletcher surveys the work of other authorities, giving an historical summary of theories concerning the nature and cause of stuttering, even as far back as the days of Celsus, the Hippocrates of the Latins, and including a discussion of treatments administered by Yeardsley and Baird of England, by Gregoire of France, Gerdts of Germany and even by the American Mrs. Leigh, whose "cure" was based upon redirecting tongue movement. All of the older theories, according to Dr. Fletcher, ignored mental factors as the source of stuttering. More recent ones, such as those of G. Hudson-Makuen, the Philadelphia laryngologist, though recognizing the mental cause, are illogical in recommending physiological treatment as a cure. "The physiological drill method centers the attention of the stutterer upon the functions of speech so that his speech consciousness, instead of being relieved, becomes accentuated." In the author's opinion, the stutterer would be vastly better off if those who have attempted to treat his case could have become oblivious of the sounds and sputterings emitted by him and could by some mysterious trick have been enabled to perceive his inner emotional disturbances. It is with these that we must deal if we would avoid the error of doctoring symptoms. In his judgment, every time a stuttering child suffers embarrassment through inability to talk, he lessens his chance of recovery.

Before presenting his own theories of psychological cure, however, Dr. Fletcher refers to other mental corrective theories, such as the verbal imagery theory of Blümel, Swift's imagery theory, the psycho-analysis of Freud as applied particularly by Scripture, and the association diagnosis of Appelt, based upon stimulus

words; and he shows wherein each fails to solve the problem. Optimism and zeal have too often been mistaken for scientific method and accuracy. In his explanation as to why he believes psychoanalysis is not effective in treating stuttering, Dr. Fletcher states that he is not opposed to Freudianism as a general psychological principle, but that, when aplied to stuttering, it becomes "a scientific excrescence that is so full of inconsistencies as to baffle analysis and discourage wholesome criticism," and there is the resulting danger of the scientist's having to ally himself with some school of thought in an all-or-none fashion and thus not synthesize the contributions of all into a unified and co-operating whole.

Environmental and occupational therapy is Dr. Fletcher's solution of the stuttering problem. "This would mean," he says, "that properly equipped rooms or buildings should be set aside for stutterers and for others who need similar care, that these rooms or buildings be equipped with necessary paraphernalia for the successful teaching of all subjects required by pupils or patients. The environment set up for these individuals should avoid all suggestions of abnormality in their case. It should, on the contrary, give the impression of being an interesting and encouraging place in which the stuttering child may find it possible to do what he is expected to do without paying a penalty for doing it. It should be a place in which he can learn things and do things without the nagging fear of being expected to be called upon to participate in programs of recitation which have been devised for children whose fluent speech is beyond him even to imagine." In this treatment, which is a modification of that recommended by Dr. E. L. Kenyon in a paper published in the *Pennsylvania Medical Journal*, December, 1909, Dr. Fletcher stresses the fact that in this new situation the stuttering child is called upon to do things which are (1) impossible for him to do without punishment, (2) which are of themselves worth doing, and (3) which are curative in their effect upon his speech difficulty. And in this scheme, he gives the solution of the problem to the educator, not to the doctor. At the same time, he insists that curriculum is of secondary importance to the establishment of new habits and healthier social attitudes. Social adjustments are made more important than information. In this scheme, however, he does not disregard motor training in speech habits, since he suggests sing-

ing, dramatization, and public speaking as very often effective media for the stutterer.

In conclusion, Dr. Fletcher says that "at least it is hoped that by now we see the error of the method, seemingly everywhere in vogue, of taking the foot out of the shoe, poulticing it and putting it back in the presence of the same protruding tack." While most of his discussion is devoted to treating stuttering among children through the readjustment of educational aims, the appendix contains an excellent, brief discussion of the problem among adults, among whom he believes that "efforts for the relief of stuttering are worth-while so long as the individual continues to be sufficiently plastic mentally to be able to acquire new knowledge, new attitudes, and new forms of skilled actions." Here, again, he would apply environmental and ocupational therapy, separating the stutterer from irritating social conditions, since his difficulty is a form of psycho-neurosis, and then providing speaking situations which are easier for him.

On the whole, *The Problem of Stuttering* is the sort of book which suffers in being reviewed, for it is impossible, in brief space, to translate its real meaning, which goes beyond its scientific accuracy and its logical organization to a fine understanding of the problem of stuttering in its relation to the child's whole life and to the welfare of society. The chief question one asks at the end is: And where will one find the money to train teachers and to pay a sufficient number to handle individual cases adequately if the school assumes the responsibility in dealing with this vital national problem?

DOROTHY KAUCHER, *Wells College*

OLD BOOKS

An Essay on Elocution. By Samuel Kirkham. New York 1833.
Elements of Reading and Oratory. By Henry Mandeville, D. D. New York 1849.

These two volumes are interesting to the student of the nineteenth century Elocution movement, because they show the persistence of the grammatical approach to elocution long after the introduction of the physiological approach instituted by Dr. James Rush in 1827.

The approach to the subject of Elocution which these two men made was due no doubt to the fact that they were grammarians. Samuel Kirkham, as he states in his Preface, is proud of his philological labors and places himself next to Lindley Murray:

> That the writer's own labours in the same field, have also contributed, in some degree, to effect that great revolution which has recently taken place with regard to the cultivation of grammatical science, and which so highly redounds to the honour and glory of the age in which we live, he is proud to believe. Since the days of Lowth, no other work on grammar, Murray's excepted, has been so favorably received by the publick as his own.

By 1835 Kirkham's *English Grammar in Familiar Lectures* had passed through over 120 editions.

Dr. Henry Mandeville likewise had a deep interest in grammar. He was professor of Belles-Lettres and Moral Science in Hamilton College and asks in his Preface.

> "whether the facts and principles of elocution could not be systematized like those of grammar."

With the instinct of grammarians for exactness and system, these men approach the subject of Elocution. Yet Kirkham, with all the minute rules and exceptions to rules, which he lays down in declarative fashion, inveighs against the affected speaker. In his opening essay on Elocution he registers in a most verbose manner his antipathy for the bad reader:

> To see a piece of elegant composition tattered and torn, and mutilated and mangled, by such a reader, is severer torture than to listen to the jarring notes of a discordant choir, to an untuned organ, or to a cracked fiddle. I would rather ride post over a hubby road in December; walk barefoot over sandy plains in July; or be compelled to live a fortnight in a smoky house; or to devour a Ratcliffe novel at one meal; or to read a chapter of Basil Hall's Travels, or a page of Emmons' Fredoniad, or a critique on an American writer in the London Quarterly, than to have my nerves agitated, my understanding stultified, and my patience exhausted, by listening to such a vile performer on the grand harmonicon of human language. I would rather listen to the croaking of frogs in the winter—I would sooner hear an owl hoot on a Sunday, or a simpering dandy chat with a belle—I would sooner listen to the buzzing of a mascheto of a hot summer's night, or to a patent-jenny-spun speech in Congress on the Tariff Bill, or to the thrumming of a dandyzette at her piano, or to a band of musicians playing upon baseviols and bassoons—I would rather hear the jingling of broken glass upon a pavement, or the trampling of feet through crusted snow, or a group of madcap boys bellowing after a fire-engine, or the refusal of a friend to lend me money—I would sooner hear a woman scold, or a child squall, than be compelled to listen to an *affected* speaker, or a *bad* reader.

After this burst of frenzy, Kirkham settles down in prosaic fashion to the formulation of definitions and rules. Elocution he divides into the traditional heads of Articulation, Tones, Inflections, Force, Time and Action. Although he does lip-service at times to the contemporary theories of Dr. Rush, still his approach to the subject never comes into lines with that of Rush. Kirkham lays the foundation for all his rules in the grammatical structure of the sentence. In keeping with this approach he provided an elaborate system of rules and symbols. When he discusses inflections, he lays down such a rule as:

> "Rule III. Sentences beginning with an interrogative pronoun or adverb (who, which, what, how, when, where, etc.) generally close with the falling inflection."

After the rule he lists the exceptions to the rule, which in some instances run to great length.

When he comes to "rhetorical action" he changes his method entirely. Here no hard and fast rules are laid down. He says:

> As we have no admitted standard of excellence in gesticula-

> tion, we are left without ample data from which to draw a complete set of rules to regulate all the proper movements of body, limbs, and features, which should take place in delivery.

He closes the short section on Action by a diatribe against "automatical gestures":

> Those automatical gestures taught in our academies and colleges, seldom do any good, frequently much harm. They are generally imperfect imitations of abominably bad precedents. Therefore, the first thing incumbent on a young man who has had the misfortune to be thus mistaught, if he would make himself eloquent, or even a tolerable, speaker, is to lay aside all that mechanical stiffness and set formality, and, by *degree*, to adopt the *natural* manner of those speakers whose gestures bear none of the marks of *study*, but which seem to burst forth as the spontaneous productions of the sentiments delivered. But, above all, he should so completely conceal all *art*, as not to allow his gestures to carry the *least appearance* of *design*.

Dr. Mandeville's work carries the grammatical method much farther than does Kirkham's. Kirkham had praised Dr. Rush's system and had quoted a few times from it, but had not accepted the fundamental premises of Dr. Rush. Dr. Mandeville does not bow to Rush at all. Instead he condemns the Rushian approach and will have none of it:

> Should a person become thoroughly versed in its various movements, which is no easy attainment, he has not taken as yet one step toward a correct and graceful delivery of a single sentence in the English Language.

Dr. Mandeville felt his aproach to be "unquestionably the system of nature." His system is based upon the sentential construction, therefore upon meaning. Rush's system he felt to be highly artificial as it was based upon the physiology of the human voice. Therefore, Dr. Mandeville seizes upon the beginnings made by Walker in the field of sentential elocution and attempts to carry the analysis to every kind of sentence in the English language. He writes:

> It will be seen, on examination, that the leading idea of Mr. Walker is mine; namely, that the law of delivery must be derived from the structure of the sentence. Mr. Walker, however, either because that idea was not a very clear one, or because he wanted leisure or patience for a wide, comprehensive and exact induction, satisfied himself, as I have already

> observed with an extremely imperfect development of it. What he left undone, I have attempted to do: to give a complete enumeration of the different sentences in the English language, and a description of their distinctive peculiarities of structure.

Dr. Mandeville launches into this task and gives a text of 350 pages in which he analyzes every type of sentence in the English language; formulates a rule for its delivery; and gives illustrations of it from literature. Compound sentences, for instance, are divided into three classes, the Declarative, the Interrogative, and the Exclamatory; the Interrogative sentences are divided into the Definite, Indefinite, Indirect, Double, Semi-interrogative, and each of these divisions in turn are sub-divided into their different forms and varieties. After each analysis follows the rule as for Single Compact sentences:

> Rule VII. The first part of a single compact sentence, and all the members of the first part, should it comprise more than one, terminate with the bend: the second part, if it comprise but one member, must terminate with perfect close; but if it comprise two or more members, the series must be delivered like an imperfect loose sentence. *(See Imperfect Loose below, and Plate, Fig. 10)*

This book is truly a monumental labor. Still its author in 1849 sent it forth to the public with high hopes, as he felt that it was a work in which the public might "universally confide as an exposition of true science" which would displace the "prevailing inefficient and clumsy method, and banish it forever from our schools," as it was a work "founded on long and patient investigation, unbiassed by received theories or preconceived opinions."

Both of these works are liberally supplied with literary excerpts mostly from poetry and the drama. Kirkham gives a short section to Poetry and Versification, and then branches out into more "General Hints to the Reader and Speaker" in which he dwells upon the necessity of being in earnest, "simple, natural, easy and dignified." He also gives hints to preachers on the eloquence of the pulpit, warning against "an affected air of sanctimonious solemnity" and finally concludes with that time-honored but questionable advice, "If many of our learned divines would study human nature more, and books less, think more, and write less, extemporize more in the pulpit, and read less in it, seek a

closer walk with God, and more frequent walks among their parishioners, they would doubtless become far more eloquent and far more useful.''

There is little of helpfulness for the modern teacher of Public Speaking in these texts, yet they illustrate the lengths to which a particular theory of elocution could be carried; and, studied in contrast with the Rushian philosophy of elocution which was beginning to flourish at the time these books were written, they give us insight into the fundamentally different points of view existing between the Sentential Elocutionists and the disciples of the Rushian school.

VIRGIL L. BAKER, *University of Arkansas*

IN THE PERIODICALS

KLINE, R. E. PATTISON. *Grasp of Material and Delivery.* Bulletin of the American Institute of Banking, Vol. 11, No. 4, pp. 399-409, October, 1929.

That the business world is vitally interested in public speaking and debate is readily grasped by an examination of Mr. Kline's article. His advice applies particularly to the debaters of the American Institute of Banking and to active participants in the banking profession. He attempts to set up a working program for the realization of an effective speech—a speech which may be measured in terms of utility. The steps in the process are the ordinary ones which are found in textbooks of debate. Mr. Kline makes an additional appeal for accurate thinking as a significant part of the speech-making process. But in the latter part of the article he indicates that "the final importance is the delivery."

The article as a whole is sketchy, but this may be accounted for on the ground that the writer is attempting a rather ambitious program for one short article. There is nothing particularly new in the article, since most of the ideas are such as may be found in any good debate textbook. And there are a few statements in the article with which one might take legitimate issue. For example: "Speech is as scientific as chemistry." Perhaps so. But at the present time the assertion would be difficult to prove. Be that as it may, the article as a whole shows clearly that the business world is interested in the subject-matter of our profession.

LESTER W. THONSSEN, *University of Iowa*

WAGNER, RUSSELL H. *The Text and Editions of Wilson's Arte of Rhetorique,* Modern Language Notes, Vol. XLIV, No. 7, November, 1929.

Dr. Wagner's article on Wilson's *Rhetoric* is an important contribution to our knowledge of the text and editions of this work. Mair, in his 1909 reprint of *Wilson's Arte of Rhetorique, 1560,* as-

sumes the edition of 1553, probably the first, to be incomplete, and presumably reconstructs the edition of 1560. Mair is thus chiefly responsible for the commonly accepted, though erroneous, view that the earlier edition is quite incomplete. In this article Dr. Wagner, after collating Mair's edition with that of 1553, presents the following evidence that the earlier edition has substantial claims to being considered basic: in the *Prologue* to the edition of 1560, which is an addition, Wilson denies that he has made amendments; in the later edition two poems are omitted and seven anecdotes are added by way of illustration; the substance, the point of view, and the terminology are the same in both; certain allusions are not brought up to date; many typographical and syntactical errors creep into the later edition. In fact, Dr. Wagner finds about one hundred and seventy-five instances where the reading of the earlier text is more satisfactory, and lists ten of the more important. Furthermore, the circumstances of Wilson's own life reveal him to have ceased his scholarly activity in 1553 with the publication of the *Rhetoric*. In establishing his text, Mair is thought not to have taken great pains to understand his author, principally because he failed to make the best use of the material from which he worked. Nine editions of the *Rhetoric* are found to be extant, those of 1553, 1560, 1562, 1563, 1567, 1580, 1584, 1585, and one only recently discovered, conjectured to be 1561. Because of the accuracy of this short article one wishes that Dr. Wagner's edition of Wilson were available for the student of rhetorical theory.

H. C. H.

DEVICE AIDS CLEFT PALATE

A new device which successfully overcomes the thick, sometimes unintelligible speech of persons afflicted with cleft palate has been made by two Viennese scientists, Dr. Albert Schalit and Prof. Emil Froeschl. The new device was recently demonstrated to the Vienna Medical Society by a dialogue between a normal person and one afflicted with cleft palate treated by the new method. Physicians present were unable to tell which of the two speakers was the sufferer. The device is based on a new thory held by the two scientists about the cause of speech difficulties in case of cleft palate.

This condition is relatively one of the most common deformities arising out of abnormal development of the human body before birth. It occurs in about one in every 1,000 births. Cleft palate is in most cases complicated with harelip. It consists of a gaping palate which, lacking the roof of the normal one, brings the interior of the nose into direct communication with the mouth. While the hare-lip can be easily handled by a simple operation, the cleft palate is very difficult to correct by surgical means. Even if the closing of the palate is successfully accomplished, the chief difficulty, inability to produce articulate speech, is not overcome by the operation.

Many attempts have been made to correct this defect by inserting devices into the mouth, but so far they have failed. Dr. Schalit and Prof. Froeschl found that the thickness of articulation is caused not so much by the fissure of the palate as by the resonance of the open fissure of the nose. Dr. Schalit did not bother with attempts to close the palate surgically but inserted a wedge-shaped piece into the nasal cavity, which completely closes it from the mouth. To this part, other necessary minor parts are fixed.—*Science News-Letter,* March 23, 1929.

NEWS AND NOTES

[Please send all items of departmental or personal news directly to Miss Lousene Rousseau, 30 Clinton Street, Brooklyn, New York.]

One of the most interesting tendencies in the speech field today is the growing recognition of the importance of the role of phonetics in the teaching of speech. And one of the most significant developments in this line is the increased emphasis placed on phonetics in the New York City schools. For example, Brooklyn has recently established eight experimental speech classes, and Queens has established three such classes, under the direction of Mrs. Sophie Pray. The Borough of Queens plans the installation of a free speech clinic at P. S. 80, and the Maxwell Training School for Teachers, in Brooklyn, will establish another speech clinic in the near future. Many of the New York schools teach the International Phonetic System to the children in the very early grades.

The Tuesday afternoon reading hours initiated by Miss Gertrude Johnson at the University of Wisconsin have become extremely popular. So far this year, four out-of-town readers have been brought to Madison: Davis Edwards read *Oedipus Rex;* R. A. Tallcott read *The Romantic Age;* Mary Agnes Doyle, *Deirdre of the Sorrows;* and Mr. Southwick, *The Rivals.* The University of Michigan and the University of Chicago are considering plans for a similar series of afternoon readings.

The Capitol College of Oratory and Music, of Columbus, Ohio, has now established a complete school of Speech Arts, under the direction of Clarence Secrest Williams. Among the activities of the college is the Capitol Little Theatre, a repertoire company made up of the students in dramatic art, and directed by Mr. Williams.

The speech work offered in the University of Wisconsin High School has been expanded and Miss Borchers, who has charge of the work there, has been given an associate, Mr. Kenneth Carmichael, who teaches two classes a day. This means that every student in the high school will henceforth have one full year's work in speech, half in the freshman year and half in the sophomore year.

Pasadena Junior College has altered the requirements of eleventh year English. This course, which was formerly straight English, now consists of three days of literature and two days of speech each week,

and is required of all eleventh year students. There are also elective courses in dramatics and in advanced public speaking.

An interesting note on debating comes from the College of the Pacific, California, where Philip Broughton has been debate coach for the past few years. By means of a systematic and carefully worked out program, this college has thoroughly established debating as one of the most interesting activities open to students. One of the contributing factors, Mr. Broughton reports, is the strict concentration upon a few outstanding contests. Five debates a year on the home campus was set as the normal effective number of major debates. In addition there is an extensive program of minor debates to provide freshman training. Another factor in the situation, and one which is somewhat novel, is the scheduling of debates in related fields, so as to build up a general background of information. One year the debates concerned life and manners, and the propositions involved democracy, business ethics, advertising, emotion versus intellect, foreign criticism of American culture, propaganda, and the press. Last year the propositions touched on crime and the courts, and questions of the jury system, the insanity plea, and the pathological versus the penal view of crime were debated.

At a request from Dr. Ray Lyman Wilbur, Secretary of the Interior, there has been created a committee of physicians and educators, called THE WHITE HOUSE COMMITTEE ON CHILD HEALTH AND PROTECTION. This Committee is to formulate plans for a conference with Mr. Hoover late this year. One of the sub-committees of the general committee is on THE CHILD DEFECTIVE IN SPEECH. This Committee consists of the following: Robert West, University of Wisconsin, Chairman, Lee Travis, University of Iowa, and Pauline Camp, Madison Public Schools, Madison, Wisconsin. This group is beginning a survey of the children in America defective in speech, and the agencies now at work to rehabilitate these children. The Committee held its first meeting in connection with the COMMITTEE ON SPECIAL EDUCATION at Detroit, January 13.

The program planned for the Children's Theatre of Emerson College by its new director, Mrs. Gertrude Binley Kay, is both interesting and ambitious. The program includes *Racketty Packetty House*, Ruskin's *King of the Golden River*, as adapted by Grace Hoffman White, *Little Madcap's Journey*, by Mrs. Larz Anderson, *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs*, by Jessie Braham White, Maeterlinck's *Bluebird*, and *Pinocchio*, by Adams Rice.

The Wisconsin Players at the University of Wisconsin have prepared an attractive booklet describing their major productions since the Bascom Theatre was dedicated some two years ago. The booklet contains scenes from *He Who Gets Slapped*, *Liliom*, Moliere's *Misanthrope*, *Six Characters*

in Search of an Author, Cradle Song, R. U. R., The Swan, Children of the Moon, Romance, and Outward Bound. William C. Troutman is director of the theatre, and J. Russell Lane is its manager.

At Syracuse University recent major productions include *Mister Pitt*, by Zona Gale; *The Changelings*, by Lee Wilson Dodd; *The Great Gatsby*, by F. Scott Fitzgerald and Owen Davis; *Hedda Gabler and Ghosts*, by Ibsen; *Tons of Money*, by Valentine and Evans; and *Loyalties* and *The First and the Last*, by Galsworthy. The Syracuse program likewise includes the presentation of thirty-two one-act plays, in groups of four. Twice a month, from Station WSYR, plays especially written or adapted for radio presentation are broadcast by a company of students. Another interesting innovation recently was the production of a moving picture, with acting, photography, lighting, cutting, and editing handled by the students. The adaptation and continuity were made, by students, from Fitzgerald's *The Pusher in the Face*. This three-reel picture was shown in a commercial theatre for a week's run.

The Goose Hangs High was recently produced by the Student Council of De Pauw University, under the direction of the Department of Speech. The event celebrated the opening of a new and completely equipped campus theatre, seating 627 people. The building likewise provides offices and classrooms for the Department of Speech, as well as workrooms and storerooms for theatrical activities.

Two recent productions at the State College of Washington have been *Behold the Bridegroom*, by George Kelly, and *The Queen's Husband*, by Robert Sherwood.

Recent productions of classic plays reported to this department include that of Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night* at John B. Stetson University, Florida; *Gammer Gurton's Needle*, at Alabama College, Montevallo; and Goldsmith's *She Stoops to Conquer*, at the University of South Dakota.

The College of Fine Arts of New York University is now offering a separate group of courses in drama designed to lead to a degree in Fine Arts. The courses, which are to be offered under the direction of Randolph Somerville of the Department of Speech, are divided into three groups. Lecture courses are to be given on "The History of the Theatre," "History of Shakespeare on the Stage," "Contemporary Dramatic Art and Appreciation of the Drama;" laboratory courses will cover elementary and advanced stagecraft, diction, interpretation of Shakespeare, make-up, the portrayal of character; and the general cultural courses will be given in the fields of history, music, fine arts, and languages. Senior students and graduates will be given the opportunity of participating in the work of the Washington Square Players, a repertory company composed of graduates of the courses, and assisted by Margaret Wycherly. Miss Wycherly will also assist Mr. Somerville in his course, and will lecture occasionally

on contemporary drama. Harrison Grey Fiske will likewise be a guest lecturer. Claude Bragdon will lecture on scenic design.

One of the most attractive events of the many which will draw teachers to Europe next summer will be the Salzburg Festival, which will take place in Salzburg, Austria, beginning the last week in July and continuing throughout August. Max Reinhardt will stage several world famous dramas, and will present such noted stars as Alexander Moissi, Emil Jannings, Werner Kraus, and many others.

The twenty-first annual meeting of the Eastern Public Speaking Conference will be held in Princeton on Friday and Saturday, April 25-26. The Conference this year completes twenty years of history; and Paul M. Pearson, President of the Swarthmore Chautauqua, who was the principal founder in 1910, will take a prominent part in this year's program. J. Walter Reeves of the Peddie School will organize the sectional meeting of teachers from secondary schools. Other chairmen will be: R. H. Wagner, Cornell University, Public Speaking and Debating; Mrs. Mary T. Harvey, Hunter College, Dramatics; Miss Azubah Latham, Columbia Teachers College, Reading; and C. K. Thomas, Cornell University, Speech Problems. Officers of the Conference are: Hoyt H. Hudson, Princeton University, President; J. Walter Reeves, The Peddie School, Vice-President; Sara M. Stinchfield, Mt. Holyoke College, Secretary-Treasurer; and W. Max Parrish, University of Pittsburgh, Member of Executive Committee.

PERSONALS

Mrs. Letitia Raubicheck is now the Director of Speech Improvement in New York City.

Orville C. Miller, formerly in the English Department of the University of Arkansas, is now the chairman of the new Department of Speech at the State Teachers College at Maryville, Missouri.

Herbert E. Rahe, recently of the University of Maine, and last year a member of the Speech faculty at Butler University, Indiana, is now head of the Public Speaking Department in Willamette University, Oregon.

W. N. Brigance of Wabash College is spending a sabbatical year at the University of Iowa, where he is completing work toward his Ph. D. degree.

Edwin Paget, formerly of Syracuse University, is now on the staff of North Carolina State College.

Miss Olivia Hobgood, who recently returned from a year spent at the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art in London, is now a member of the faculty in Reading and Speaking at Wellesley College.

Miss Alta Hall, formerly of the Hunter College faculty, New York, and recently a member of the faculty of the Glendale, California, Junior College, has joined the staff of the School of Speech of the University of Southern California, of which R. K. Immel is Dean.

J. Fred McGrew, who taught last year at the State Teachers College at Kalamazoo, Michigan, is now a member of the West Virginia University staff in speech.

Hubert Kay, who is the son of Wilbur Jones Kay of West Virginia University, is following in his father's footsteps. He is at present teaching speech at Washington Square College of New York University.

Miss Margaret Mary McCarthy has resigned her position at the State Normal School at Cheney, Washington, and is studying in New York City.

Donald Hayworth, head of the Speech Department at the University of Akron, has recently received his Ph. D. degree in speech from the University of Wisconsin.

J. Merrill Heaphy, who recently received his master's degree from the University of Michigan, has gone to Pontiac, Michigan, where he will organize and administer the work in corrective speech in the elementary schools.

Philip S. Broughton, who is in charge of the speech work at the College of the Pacific, California, has been awarded the Cowles Fellowship in government at Yale University.

Wells Harrington, a recent graduate of the University of Wisconsin, is now teaching speech and conducting debate and public speaking activities at the Kalamazoo, Michigan, High School.

Monroe C. Lippman, who recently received his master's degree from the University of Michigan and completed part of the work toward a Ph. D. at the University of Iowa, is the new head of the Department of Speech and Dramatics at the State Teachers College at San Marcos, Texas.

Dr. Benjamin D. Scott, who enjoyed sabbatical leave the first semester of this year, spent a large portion of that time visiting the speech departments of the Middle West and the East. He is a member of the faculty of Pomona College of Claremont, California.

George H. Bost has resigned his position at Carroll College, Wisconsin, and is now teaching speech at the Presbyterian Theological Seminary in Chicago. Vernon Utzinger is taking his place at Carroll College.

Miss Annabel Wood, who recently received her master's degree from the University of Wisconsin, is now teaching speech at the State Teachers College at Mayville, North Dakota.

Miss Ruby C. Walker is taking a year's leave of absence from the State Teachers College at Denton, Texas, and is studying at Columbia University.

Dwayne Orton, formerly of Baylor College, Texas, is taking the place of Philip S. Broughton at the College of the Pacific, California.

Mrs. Ruth Huston Whipple has returned to Northwestern High School, Detroit, where she is teaching courses in argumentation and directing the debate work. Mrs. Whipple formerly taught in Plymouth, Michigan.

Professor D. E. Watkins who spent the first semester of the current year on leave pursuing research studies in the Library of Congress at